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A
TREATISE
ON THE
WEALTH, POWER, AND RESOURCES,
OF THE
British Empire,
IN EVERY QUARTER OF THE WORLD,
INCLUDING THE EAST INDIES:

THE RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE FUNDING SYSTEM EXPLAINED;

*With Observations on the National Resources for the beneficial Employment of a redundant
Population, and for rewarding the Military and Naval Officers, Soldiers, and Seamen,
for their Services to their Country during the late War.*

ILLUSTRATED BY
COPIOUS STATISTICAL TABLES,
CONSTRUCTED ON A NEW PLAN,
AND EXHIBITING A COLLECTED VIEW OF THE DIFFERENT SUBJECTS DISCUSSED IN THIS WORK.

BY P. COLQUHOUN, LL.D.

QUIDQUID AGUNT HOMINES NOSTRI, FARRAGO LIBELLI.
JUVENAL.

London:

PRINTED FOR JOSEPH MAWMAN, LUDGATE-STREET.

1814.

TREATISE

WILLIAM POWELL AND HIS WORKS

Early in the month of November the Commission
of the text of the work first commenced. The Tables were nearly
completed, labelled, and the printed copies were
then in the possession of the printer. In the progress of these
Tables, which had so long occupied
the printer's press, it was necessary to have a
supply of the tables in the printer's hands, and the
printer, in order to be enabled to supply the
Commissioners, the printer's press was
The revision of various colonies to the Commission of
Holland, and Denmark, will of course diminish the population
stated in page 7 of the text, and in the Statistical Table in page 17
as amounting to 61,157,433 souls, which must be considered as now
reduced to 59,055,733. This, adding up to the population of
population estimated at 1,501,709, with colonies valued upon
the whole at 60,557,442. These figures are
These figures, however, in the tables, and probably also
with a view to the more complete of the tables, will appear in
the Tables as a mark of the printer's error, but they are not
noticed in the text, which is not intended to be altered.

H. Bryer, Printer,
Bridge-street, Blackfriars, London.

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Staatsbibliothek
München

ADVERTISEMENT.

EARLY in the month of November last, when the Composition of the text of this Work first commenced, the Tables were nearly completed, including the captured, as well as the British colonies then in the possession of the Crown. In its progress, many of these Tables were printed before the war, which had so long afflicted Europe, assumed a new and more favourable aspect, and had happily terminated in a treaty of peace restoring the general tranquillity, after twenty years of tyranny and devastation, which had disorganized the general system of Continental Europe.

The cession of various colonies to the Sovereigns of France, Holland, and Denmark, will of course diminish the population stated in page 7, of the text, and in the statistical Table in page 47, as amounting to 61,157,433 souls, which must be considered as now reduced to 59,655,725; thus yielding up to the belligerents a population estimated at 1,501,708, with colonies valued upon the whole at £87,707,130 sterling.

These cessions, necessary in themselves, and politically wise with a view to the future tranquillity of Europe, still appear in the Tables as a mark of British liberality; but they are not noticed in the text, which is confined intirely to what relates

to the various extra-marine possessions now acknowledged by the late belligerent powers to belong in perpetuity to the British Crown.

Such instances of generous magnanimity, on the part of the British Government, cannot fail to exalt the nation in a still greater degree in the minds of the people of Europe, more especially when the extent and value of the sacrifice are disclosed; and since these cessions have been made to obtain advantages to all the allied powers, no less perhaps than to those to whom the boon had been granted, a confident hope is entertained that their feelings on this occasion will be manifested by liberal commercial treaties.

The gratitude of France, Holland, and Denmark, is, in a peculiar manner, due to this nation, since, in relinquishing the colonies, the monopoly of a beneficial trade is also conceded to them, and that too without any equivalent, at a time when a considerable proportion of the commerce of the world must, in justice to all nations, be divided, and can no longer centre in this country.

*James Street, Westminster,
20th July, 1814.*

PREFACE.

THE Author offers this Work to the world with all that diffidence and anxiety which naturally arise from an undertaking, which assumes to develop the general system of national economy, together with its practical effect, applicable to the whole of the British Empire in every quarter of the world.

He is not aware, that these important subjects have been treated in the same concise and connected manner, or that it has been attempted before to discover the actual wealth of the nation through the medium of a specific valuation of every species of existing property, or to estimate the new property produced annually by the labour of the people, aided by ingenious machinery, and invigorated by skill and capital; nor does it appear that any effort has heretofore been made to show by estimate, or the rules of political arithmetic, in what proportions, according to the ascertained population, this new property, created from year to year, upon which the nation exists, is divided among the different classes forming the body politic.

The object of this Work is to explain, as far as explanation has been practicable, the foundation upon which the power and resources of the British Empire rests. — *Its wealth: — its new property created annually: — the distribution of this property: — the revenues of the country: — the national expenditure: — the public debts and the funding system: — the value and the annual produce of the British dependencies and colonies in Europe, North America, the West Indies, in Africa, and Asia; including the British possessions under the control and direction of the East India Company:*

—all which subjects are separately discussed, and illustrated by copious statistical Tables.

It had long been a desideratum with the Author to direct his inquiries and to turn his attention to the important and interesting subjects, which he has now ventured to submit to the consideration of the public, in the confident hope that an investigation, no less curious than useful, systematically arranged and brought within the narrowest compass, and supported and elucidated by every existing accessible official fact, might afford some assistance to the national credit, while it tended to tranquillize the minds of those who may have been disposed to entertain gloomy apprehensions respecting the resources of the country under the immense pressures, occasioned by a war of unexampled expence and duration.

In pursuing these inquiries he has also been stimulated by an anxious desire to convey to the British people, not only in the parent state, but in every quarter of the extended dominions of the Crown, that species of information which every British subject would naturally wish to possess; but which, in a collected point of view, did not exist, and was not attainable without a considerable degree of labour. It is therefore humbly presumed, that it may prove interesting to the statesman, the land-holder, the agriculturist, the merchant, the trader, the ship-owner, the manufacturer, and the stock-holder; while to those connected with India and the British colonies in every quarter of the world, the details which are given, applicable to these transmarine settlements, may be found useful.

Subject, however, as the Author has been, to numerous interruptions, in consequence of various occupations and public duties, which had a paramount claim on his attention, and considering that the present extended Work, embracing such a variety of subjects, *political, moral, statistical, and historical*, has been completed in the course of little more than seven months, under every possible disadvantage, the indulgence of the Reader is earnestly solicited where imperfections may be discovered. An anxiety to bring the Work under the review of the public, at this most interesting crisis, has occasioned a considerable degree of exertion, while the intricacy and diversity of the subjects, requiring the whole stretch of the human mind, undisturbed and uninterrupted by any other pursuit,

PREFACE.

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must have rendered it less perfect than it might have been under more favourable circumstances.

——— Ubi plûra nitent in carmine, non ego paucis
Offendar maculis, quas aut incuria fudit,
Aut humana parùm cavit natura.

HOR.

The formation of the Tables has required a greater length of time. From the vast variety of matter which they contain, each may be considered as a complete though concise history of subjects of which it treats. From the diversity of facts necessary to form the component parts, many of which were not to be found in books, parliamentary documents, or any existing public record, it would have been impossible to have accomplished this laborious and intricate part of the Work had it not been for the able assistance of an extremely attached friend,* to whose unremitting labour and indefatigable industry the Author is indebted for this valuable addition to the Work. It is scarcely possible to find language sufficiently strong to express the extent of the labour this Gentleman employed for the purpose of obtaining authentic, oral, and written information from persons of respectability, possessing local information in the different colonies and dependencies of the Crown. To the peculiar force of his mind, and his persevering industry, therefore, the public are in a great measure indebted for the execution of a series of statistical Tables, which, from the simplicity of their structure, and the accuracy of their arrangement, will be found intelligible at first view, while they cannot fail to prove interesting, since they embrace every thing that is necessary to convey to the mind the various combinations upon which the power and resources of the British Empire are founded. It is thus that the national affairs are placed in a situation to be equally understood in all their ramifications as the concerns of an individual carrying on an extensive commerce, merely requiring system and method in the general arrangement, and an accurate view of the whole at the termination of each year.

* James Brownbill, Esq. late Collector of His Majesty's Customs at Morant Bay, Jamaica.

The existence of such a developement of the national affairs, and the state of society in the Augustan age, or in the brightest periods of the Roman Empire, handed down to posterity, would be considered, at the present æra of the world, as an invaluable acquisition.

Although in forming these Tables every existing authentic document has been carefully examined, in addition to oral and written testimony, in order to give a feature of accuracy to the Work, as far as accuracy to a point was attainable; yet in various instances it has been found necessary to resort to estimates founded on the best lights that could be procured; *such as the value of the national property; — the new property annually created by land, capital, and labour; — and the division of the property so created among the various classes of the community.* All that can be expected, under these circumstances, is *an approximation to facts*; and here it may with truth be observed, that if the success of the Author, in this respect, shall be found equal to the labour bestowed in the investigation, the object will have been nearly attained. A foundation however is now laid, that may be improved by future and abler Authors availing themselves of new lights, which have not yet beamed upon the world, and which may render the enquiry more perfect.

The great and primary object, contemplated in this Work, has been to render it useful in improving the state and condition of society; to convey to the mind a general idea of the structure of the body politic in all its component parts; to amend whatever shall appear to require improvement, arising from the suggestions and disclosures which are now offered to the consideration of the public; and generally to promote the national prosperity, and the comfort and happiness of the people, not only in the parent state, but in all the extended dominions of the Crown in every quarter of the world.

The extraordinary events, which have taken place in the course of the last twenty years, will be found, (in cultivating the arts of peace) to have given a new feature to the general structure of civil society, requiring, on the part of those assigned to execute the powers of the different governments of Europe, new efforts, and new measures, applicable to the changes which have taken place.

In this country the great object will be, to find productive employment for the people; to watch narrowly the progress of population; and to devise legislative regulations calculated to open new sources of industry, that the demand for labour may, if possible, be at all times equal to the supply.

Happily, in the United Kingdom and its colonies and dependencies, these resources exist to a greater extent than perhaps in any other nation in the world; and nothing remains but to give them a proper direction. An active and an industrious population is the stay and support of every well-governed community. In the degree, in which this industry prevails, will be found the greatest portion of virtue and happiness; the strongest desire to support the laws; and the most ardent loyalty to the Sovereign, and attachment to the existing government.

On the contrary, where the quantum of labour in the higher as well as the lower branches of industry exceeds the demand, disloyalty, insubordination, idleness, misery, profligacy, and crimes, are the never-failing result.

Great indeed — unquestionably great are the blessings of peace, since it removes from nations the greatest of all calamities, — the horrors and devastations of war. Yet it will not be denied that it increases the demand for employment, while at least in these kingdoms it occasions a diminution of the resources generated by war for the support of the people, not only in naval and military situations, but in commerce and navigation, which must now be shared, and justly shared with the different maritime nations of Europe. A peculiar feature in the war just terminated, tended in a considerable degree to concentrate the commerce and navigation of the world chiefly in the British Empire.

This consideration, when coupled with the increase of the people, and the number of brave men who must seek for other means of subsistence in consequence of the happy termination of the war, requires immediate attention.

It will therefore now become an important desideratum to cultivate the arts of peace, by improving and rendering more populous the colonies which still remain as appendages to the United Kingdom; so that the surplus labour of the people may become beneficial to themselves in the greatest possible degree, and also to the parent state.

With this particular view the Author, in the progress of this Work, has endeavoured to investigate and explain the nature and extent of the colonial resources, while in the concluding Chapter he has entered into various details, not only explanatory of the necessity and utility of the measure, but of the means of carrying it into execution, under circumstances calculated to impart blessings and happiness, at the same time holding out a fair prospect of ultimate independence to all who may be disposed to avail themselves of the benefits in the power of Government to confer.

Finally, if the suggestions arising out of the great diversity of subjects discussed in this Work, shall fortunately attract the attention, and experience the approbation of those elevated individuals assigned to legislate, and to execute the powers of Government, so as to produce a beneficial practical effect; and and if, upon the whole, the information conveyed, and the labour employed in producing this Work, shall tend to improve the moral habits, and to increase the comforts of the people in this widely-extended Empire, the Author will rejoice in the success of probably this, his last attempt to contribute by these his humble efforts to the general happiness and prosperity of his Country.

Quoniam vita brevis est, quodcunque utile à nobis

Fieri possit, ut nos vixisse ostendamus, faciamus.

James Street, Westminster,

18th July 1814.

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CHAPTER I.

ON THE POPULATION OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

The importance of the Subject.—The general principles of Population explained.—The Tables annexed embrace the population of the Empire in every quarter of the Globe.—A Summary View of the same.—Population limited by the quantity and species of accessible food.—The United Kingdom capable of producing food for an extensive population.—The importance of extending the Fisheries as a means of increasing the population.—Where a redundant population prevails, emigration to the British Settlements desirable.—The progress of population in different countries.—Deaths decreased in Great Britain.—Population of the Towns and in the Country.—Increase of Houses and People in ten years.—A greater tendency to people the Towns than the Country.—The subject of Population pursued.—The demand for corn in Great Britain has exceeded the supply.—Prices have advanced beyond their true level. The Farmers greatly benefited.—The advantages to be derived from a more extended cultivation. Its progress has been considerable in the United Kingdom.—The improvement of morals of great importance in respect to population.—The education of Youth strongly recommended.—The dense population of Towns not favourable to morals.—The progressive increase of the Metropolis during the last fifty years.—Population only becomes a blessing to a Country when its people are industrious and virtuous.—Where this becomes the national character, there will always be found the greatest portion of happiness, producing results favourable to the power of States and Empires.

THE population of states and empires is, perhaps, one of the most interesting and important subjects which can engage the public attention: but more particularly these elevated individuals to whom it peculiarly belongs to exercise the powers of government. It

has not only attracted the attention of many eminent writers of the British nation, but also of foreign countries. (a)

In delineating, therefore, the power, opulence, and resources of the British Empire in every quarter of the habitable globe, as contemplated in the years 1812 and 1813, it should seem to be most appropriate to commence with *a general view of the population*.

But previously to those details which apply particularly to the British Empire, it may be useful shortly to explain those general principles upon which the population of the nations of the world are regulated, whether they apply to a civilized or a savage state of society.

In contemplating this interesting subject, it must be admitted that in almost every country considerable checks exist to the rapid increase of population; and that they apply, even in a greater degree, to a savage state of life than to countries where civilization prevails.

According to the actual circumstances of every country the principle of population appears to be always ready to exert itself in full force. In savage life, it is checked principally by the impossibility of finding food, always uncertain and precarious where subsistence is only to be derived from hunting or fishing; from a limited or imperfect agriculture; or from the uncertain and scanty resources arising from a pastoral state of society having no

(a) The principal writers of the British Nation, during the two last and the present century, are these following,

Sir William Temple	Hume	Anderson	Muret	Duberdieu
Sir William Petty	Sir James Stewart	A. Young	Godwin	Bushe
Dr. Davenant	Dr. Adam Smith	Wallace	Cook	Tighe
Gregory King	Dr. Price	Sir John Sinclair	Vancouver	Newenham
South	Dr. Robertson	Sir Frederick Eden	Sym	Paley
Brackenridge	Lord Kaimes	Dirom	Chalmers	Lord Lauderdale
Dr. Short	Mr. Burke	Ferguson	Collins	Malthus.

Among the principal foreign writers are Zoroaster, Halborstadt, Halle, Towrend, Euler, Neckar, Condorcet, Charlevoix, Meau, Volney, &c. But of all the writers on the subject of population, Mr. Malthus appears to take the lead as an advocate for the principle which he labours with great learning and ingenuity to establish. As a political economist his knowledge is profound; and as an able, acute, and logical reasoner, he has perhaps never been surpassed. His talents and learning are unquestionably of the first class; and if in attempting to establish a favourite hypothesis he has perhaps in some instances carried his arguments too far; yet no preceding writer appears to have thrown so much light on a branch of political economy in itself of the greatest importance to the well-being of society. In spite of the alarms which this masterly work has excited in the minds of some men of acknowledged learning and talents, Mr. Malthus will be found (on a full consideration of his arguments and observations taken in connection) to be no friend to a *depopulating system*. On the contrary, he declares in the most explicit terms

“ That an increase of population when it follows its natural order is not only a *positive good* in itself, and ab-

“ solutely necessary in the further increase of the annual produce of the land and labour of the country—

“ *He shall be the last to deny.*” Malthus, page 497.

fixed residence. The propensity to war also, and the cruelties attending the system of hostility in savage life, to which infanticide may be added, tend in an eminent degree to the destruction of the human species, and when aided by ardent spirits and diseases introduced in most instances where the incivilized come in contact with civilized society; all combine in preventing an increase of people. And hence it is, that the savages appear rather to decrease, particularly in those countries settled by Europeans.

On the contrary, wherever civilization prevails, an augmentation of people will be found in every country where the means of subsistence is redundant, and where from local circumstances it is accessible to the mass of the people. Thus in North America where superabundant resources for the support of a family remove from the mind all apprehension of extreme poverty, misery, or want, the principle of population exerts itself to the utmost, so as to produce a doubling upon an average in less than 25 years, though in districts in the back settlements, where the children of a family are enabled from peculiar circumstances speedily to support themselves, and ultimately to become valuable auxiliaries to their parents in agricultural pursuits, the population doubles in a much shorter period. Its rapidity depends on the number of children born to each marriage, and the proportion of that number which lives to form a fresh and an early union. Under the most favourable circumstances Sir William Petty supposed a doubling possible in ten years. The measure of this rapidity is the proportion which the excess of births above the deaths bears to the whole population.

Where very few checks exist, and where lands can be obtained on easy terms, such is the tendency to procreation that the increase will always be progressive and considerable. According to a table of Euler calculating on a mortality of 1 in 36, if the births will be to the deaths in the proportion of 3 to 1, the period of doubling will only be $12\frac{1}{2}$ years.

In states, however, where considerable resources do not exist for the support of a redundant population, the checks to an unshackled increase exist in their full force; and the degree of increase or diminution depends not only on the quantity of food raised in a country, but on the existing resources for the employment of the people through which medium only can food be accessible. During a period of 63 years England uniformly exported a considerable quantity of corn and grain arising from the surplus produce of the soil; and although during the period (from 1701 to 1764) the average price of wheat did not exceed 33s. 3d. a quarter (while there was no depreciation of money) yet these low prices, and an apparent abundance, had little effect on the population of the country which advanced slowly; from which it may be inferred that the means of obtaining subsistence by productive labour were scanty, and that it operated powerfully even in the midst of apparent plenty in restraining marriages and a consequent rapid multiplication of the people. On the contrary, from 1796 to 1811, during which years the prices of corn rose to an enormous height and every other article of the first necessity in the same proportion, the population, notwithstanding the drains for the public service in the naval and military departments, has advanced in a ratio exceeding those years, when no corn

ON THE POPULATION OF

was imported, and when the agriculture of the country was more than sufficient for the whole population. This can only be accounted for by the vast increase of manufactures and consequent opulence which burst upon the country, affording profitable employment for the mass of the people. And hence it follows, that a country may raise enough of corn for the support of its population, and even export a considerable surplus without materially affecting the population; which can only acquire great activity when the demand for labour somewhat exceeds the supply. It is by the labour of the people alone, and by means of the property created yearly by that labour that all empires, kingdoms, and states, are supported, whether employed in agriculture, (which is the best of all) or in manufactures, commerce, or any other course of productive industry.

Yet where these advantages do not exist, and in some instances even where the sterility of the country renders it impracticable to raise sufficient food for the support of the people; in spite of the moral restraint and the misery which ought to give efficacy to those checks which are opposed to a redundant population, there is a strong tendency to increase and multiply. Switzerland may be adduced as a proof of the justice of this remark, where the density of the population, the insufficiency of food, and the paucity of resources for profitable employment, produce much misery; and where no relief can be found but by emigration to countries, where for want of colonies the labour of the people is lost to the parent state.

Generally speaking, whatever is the rate of increase in the *means of subsistence* so will be the legitimate increase of population. The one is decidedly limited by the other. All the children born beyond what would be necessary to keep up the population to this level can find relief only in emigration. Otherwise, great distress will ensue, while the support of the surplus population must fall upon the most opulent classes of society for the purpose of maintaining in idleness a portion of the community for whose labour there is no demand, and where without such support they must starve, or become noxious to the public by acts of criminal delinquency.

But while the principle of population is ever ready to exert its full force and even where the means of subsistence exist, it is extremely difficult, and appears almost impracticable, for any government so to direct the industry of the people as either to obtain the greatest quantity of food which the earth could produce, or otherwise advantageously to dispose of their labour so as to yield the most abundant return of which it is capable. In the British dominions it could not be effectually accomplished without a violation of the law of property, and the rights of the people. Yet much might be done by a wise and enlightened government towards the attainment of this object by appropriate laws and stimulating encouragements.

As far as respects agriculture, it is an object of the most vital importance to the nation at large that this desideratum should arrest the attention of the executive government at all times, but more especially at the present crisis in consequence of the rapid increase of the British and Irish population; and more particularly, when it is considered that

in all countries where the population is not only extensive but progressive in a geometrical ratio, an importation of corn equal to the demand is not possible where the deficiency is great. Vide page 23.

And hence (although it appears to have escaped observation) it becomes obvious, that every nation of considerable extent must necessarily not only support the greatest part of its population from the produce of its own soil, but by promoting resources for *productive labour* enable those who possess *this only* to apply it to the best purposes so as to obtain the means of subsistence. It is within the reach of possibility that this country, aided by a proper and uniform direction of the national industry, might in the course of a couple of centuries (or perhaps less) contain three times its present population, and yet every man in the kingdom be better fed and cloathed than at present. While the springs of industry continue in vigour and a sufficient part of that industry is directed to agriculture, population will rapidly increase.

A nation like the British Empire, possessed of a vast territory, is unavoidably subject to a degree of uncertainty in its means of subsistence, where the commercial and manufacturing community is nearly equal to, or has extended beyond the produce of its cultivation. In numerous instances of depopulation which occur in history the cause of it may generally be traced to the want of industry or to its improper direction, arising from bad government—inattention on the part of those who govern, and ignorance combined with despotism, all which operate in producing a want of food and of course depopulation follows. When Rome first adopted the custom of importing her corn, and converted the whole of Italy into pasture, her population diminished, and her power was in proportion abridged. The average importation of corn into Great Britain bears as yet but a small proportion to that which is produced from the national cultivation; and therefore the power of supporting so vast a body of people not concerned in agriculture must be attributed principally to the greatness of the surplus labour in other pursuits. See pages 22 and 23.

It has indeed frequently happened, that where a great diminution of people has suddenly arisen from war, famine, and pestilence, the chasm has been filled up after the cause ceased to operate, and that with a rapidity which is almost incredible; this however is easily to be accounted for by reverting to the principle of population, and it shews the extreme difficulty of depopulating any civilized country by the death or removal of the people where the sources of subsistence and industry remain.—*Let these be taken away, and the mischief is done at once*; but let these resources remain, and men will crowd to the situation which is most tempting and where there is the least competition for the disposal of labour, and in a few generations will people any country to the measure of its means of subsistence. No destruction of inhabitants is so permanently hurtful to population as a revolution in that spirit which is necessary for the increase and support of numbers. Let that spirit be kept up, and let

mankind be well governed, and numbers will rise to their former standard after the greatest reduction possible. Where the wisest institutions and the most happiness exist there will always be found the most people. Every thing however depends on the relative proportion between population and accessible food; and not on the number of people. Food may even be abundant and not accessible, which must ever be the case where labour is a drug and the supply in any considerable degree exceeds the demand.

In the British dominions to the laws for the security of property and marriage, and to the principle of self love, which prompts each individual to exert himself in improving his condition in society, we are indebted for all the noblest exertions of human genius, and for every thing which distinguishes the civilized from the savage state.

It is not however an excess of property in the few, but the extension of it among the mass of the community which appears most likely to prove beneficial with respect to national wealth and national happiness. Perhaps no country in the world possesses greater advantages in this respect than Great Britain, and hence that spirit of enterprise and that profitable employment of diffused capitals which has created so many resources for productive labour beyond any other nation in Europe.

This diffusion of property enlarges the scope of its active powers and gives it a direction calculated to augment the demand for profitable labour. In the hands of a few it is not always beneficially directed so as to produce the greatest possible benefit to the community; since £100,000 or any other given sum, employed in building the mansion of a nobleman or gentleman, is not so beneficial to the community as the same sum employed in producing and reproducing new property through the medium of agriculture, commerce, and manufactures. Capitals, thus employed, become a powerful engine in the possession of genius, talent, and industry, by which not only those who labour, but those who promote, direct, and invigorate its active powers mutually derive advantage; and we trace through this medium those causes which contribute to the wealth of nations. It is the labour of the people that produces this wealth. It is by the efforts of the day-labourer in various pursuits that the new property of a country is created, upon which all ranks of the community subsist. And where a virtuous and industrious population is thus fully employed, and its industry is well directed, invigorated, and rendered productive by skill and capital, the progressive advance of a country in power and opulence is the never failing result.

In respect to the population of the British Empire the tables (four in number) annexed to this chapter (the result of great labour and research) embrace the whole subject, and cannot fail to excite a considerable degree of interest. The details they contain must be perused with exultation and astonishment by every British subject, while to foreign nations they will convey the most exalted ideas of the unex-

THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

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ampled power and resources of this great empire, as exhibited in the following summary view.

	Europeans.	Free persons of colour.	Negro Labourers.	Total Souls.
Present population of Great Britain and Ireland, } exclusive of the Army and Navy	16,456,303	.	.	16,456,303
British subjects in the different dependencies in } Europe	180,300	.	.	180,300
Idem . . in the British possessions in North America	486,146	.	.	486,146
Idem . . Idem in the West India Colonies.	64,994	33,081	634,096	732,171
Idem . . in the Conquered Colonies in Idem.	35,829	26,253	372,800	434,882
Idem . . in the British Settlements in Africa	20,678	108,299	.	128,977
Idem . . in Colonies and Dependencies in Asia	61,059	1,807,496	140,450	2,009,005
East India Company's Territorial Possessions	25,246	40,033,162	.	40,058,408
British Navy, Army, Marines, and Seamen in re- } gistered vessels, including foreign corps in the } British service	671,241	.	.	671,241
Total amount of the population of the British Empire	18,001,796	42,008,291	1,147,346	61,157,433

The land forces or men in arms in the British Empire, including the Regular Army and Foreign Corps, the British and Irish Militias, the Local Militia and Volunteers of Great Britain, with the Militia and Fencibles in the Colonies and Dependencies are estimated in the Table (page 47.)	721,187
The British Navy and Marines	179,920
The British and Native Army in India including the India Marine Forces	160,913
Total armed Force of the British Empire	1,062,020

Reverting to the period when his present Majesty ascended the throne in 1760, and contrasting the power and resources of the country with the present auspicious period, it must be admitted that the most sanguine imagination could not have anticipated such an accession of population, territory, and power, and more especially when during the same period thirteen colonies in North America were severed from the Parent State.

It will be seen by inspecting the Table No. 1. pages 46 and 47, that the British dependencies and colonies in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, amount to *fifty-three* where the British flag flies (exclusive of the Parent State and the extensive territories acquired by the East India Company.) These acquisitions being in every part of the habitable globe, it may be averred with truth that the sun never sets on the flag of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland!

In estimating the population of Great Britain recourse has been had to the

Census of 1811, according to the returns arranged and printed by an order of the House of Commons. (b)

A Census of the population of Ireland was ordered by Parliament in the year 1812, but no returns having as yet been made, the calculation in the Table presumes that the male and female inhabitants of that country amount to four millions and a half, although very strong presumptive evidence has however been adduced by a very intelligent writer, that it must considerably exceed this estimate, and that the progress has been most rapid of late years. (c)

The population of the numerous dependencies, comprising the transmarine possessions of the British Empire, has been investigated with the most laborious attention. Wherever authentic evidence, founded on public records, were accessible, they have been resorted to, and where such did not exist recourse has been had to respectable individuals, who possessed local knowledge, applicable to each particular settlement and colony in all instances without a single exception, where information could not be obtained from recent publications.—See Table No. I. pages 46 and 47.

In estimating the population of the territories acquired by the East India Company, the number of Europeans has been ascertained by a reference to public docu-

(b) The reader is referred to the very able and judicious observations of John Rickman, Esq. appointed by the Lords of His Majesty's Privy Council to digest and reduce to order the population returns of Great Britain under the Acts of the 41 and 51 of Geo. III. A work of excessive labour, and executed in a manner highly creditable to the compiler.

(c) According to the opinion entertained by Thomas Newenham, Esq. who published a statistical and historical inquiry into the progress and magnitude of the population of Ireland in 1805, it should seem that the population of the sister kingdom has advanced in a ratio exceedingly beyond England, particularly within the last thirty years. Mr. Newenham enters into a great variety of details in order not only to prove this fact, but also that the population of Ireland must double in 46 years;—that its population in 1805 could not be less than 5,395,456;—that in 1837 Ireland ought to contain 8,413,224 persons;—and in 1851 that the population must increase to 11,000,000;—and further, from the proofs which he adduces of the extraordinary fertility of Ireland, the unexampled extension of tillage within the last twenty years, and the propensity which prevails to prefer potatoes to bread corn, that the produce of the country will be more than sufficient to support this extensive population.

In a more recent work published by Mr. Newenham in 1809, entitled a *View of the Natural, Political and Commercial circumstances of Ireland*, he confirms his former opinions as to the vast resources and the rapidly growing prosperity of Ireland and the increase of the population. In pages 218 and 220 of this work, Mr. Newenham asserts that, “the population of Ireland has increased more rapidly than in any other country in Europe. That if, according to Mr. Bushe, it contained 4,000,000 in 1787 of which he entertains no doubt as it amounted to 4,206,612 in 1791, it must therefore now amount to 5,000,000 or 5,500,000; otherwise it must have increased much slower than at any period of the last century, which he considers incredible, as the circumstances of the country have been infinitely more favourable to an increase of the people during the last 20 years than during any former period of equal extent. And assuming that the population has experienced an accession of one million, it follows that there must be at least 1,500,000 more Acres in a state of cultivation than in 1787. For if so small a quantity of land as one acre and a half is found sufficient for the support of each individual on an average, it follows that the cultivated land alone of Ireland, amounting to 13,454,375 acres, would maintain 8,969,588 persons.”

ments, while the natives have been taken at 40,000,000 according to the statement of the Marquis Wellesley, under a conception that it must approach nearer the truth than the opinions of others who extend it to fifty, and even sixty millions, which appear only to rest on conjecture. (d)

Upon the whole, a confident opinion is entertained, that the estimates now laid before the public are as accurate as the nature of such an extended investigation will admit, and that the population must be rather under than over the specific enumerations which will be found in the Tables.—And when times of greater tranquillity and more leisure shall enable those to whom it is assigned to direct the helm of the state to make appropriate arrangements, whereby the actual population of each country may be ascertained, and the annual labour of such an excessive and redundant population can be turned into the most productive channels; the mind is bewildered in contemplating the vast extent of the newly created property which must annually result from such labour, when well and judiciously directed, with a view to the comfort and happiness of the people and the increased resources of the State.

But as the chief strength of the empire must in a great degree depend on the progressive increase of the population of the parent state, not only as a resource for productive labour and for defence at home and abroad, but also with a view to a redundancy for the purpose of peopling the colonies and dependencies of the crown in every part of the world; it may be of importance to take a general view of the progress of population in Great Britain and Ireland during the last and the present century. The returns under the population acts of 1801 and 1811 furnish materials whereby the former is ascertained; but the latter must rest in a great measure upon conjecture, until similar returns are made from Ireland in consequence of the Act of 1812, authorising a Census to be taken of the actual population of that country;—but no doubt can be entertained, for reasons which have been already stated, and which shall be further illustrated in the course of this work, that the progress has been, and still continues to be, infinitely more rapid than in Great Britain. The estimates of

(d) When his present Majesty ascended the throne in the year 1760, the population of his dominions, even including the thirteen Colonies which have been severed from the parent state, did not upon the whole exceed *twelve millions five hundred thousand individuals*. The battle of Plassy in the East Indies was fought by Lord Clive on the 23d of June 1757, previous to which the East India Company had acquired no territorial possessions in India, (Bombay excepted) beyond the range of their commercial settlements for which they paid a rent or tribute to the native Princes. On the 12th of August 1765, the Great Mogul Emperor, by five firmans, formally made over to the company the Dewannee, or right of collecting for their own use the revenues of Bengal, Bahir, and Orissa, subject to a provision for himself and the Subahdar's court. He confirmed to them also the absolute property of Burdwan, Midnapore, and Chitagong, and the lands adjacent to Calcutta.

Since that period large additional territories have been acquired in India, and the vast acquisitions obtained during the french revolutionary war by His Majesty's arms in every part of the habitable globe have increased the population, combined with its progress during the period of the present reign, to the astonishing and unexampled height exhibited in the Table No. I. page 47.

the whole population of the British empire, although not all founded on official documents, will, it is hoped, be found to approximate so near the truth as to render them useful with a view to any object of state policy in the contemplation of the legislature or the executive government. The following Table of the progressive population of Great Britain will be found in the parliamentary reports in the years 1801 and 1811. The enumeration at these two periods is founded on actual returns. Those that precede them rest chiefly on calculations of births, marriages, and burials.

Table shewing the state of the population of Great Britain in every ten years of the last and present Century.

Years.	England and Wales. Population.	Scotland. Population.	Total. For England and Scotland.	Ireland.
1700	5,475,000	1,048,000	6,523,000	With respect to the population of Ireland there exists at present a considerable diversity of opinions, which can only be set at rest by the actual enumeration which is now in progress. The estimate of 4,500,000, which is now assumed to be the amount of the population in 1811, is founded on the results discovered by means of a Poll Tax levied in 1695, which exhibited a population of 1,034,000; but as the usual evasions of this tax may be supposed to have lessened this number considerably, the actual number of inhabitants at the commencement of the last century is estimated by Mr. Rickman, in the parliamentary returns, at 1,500,000, with a progressive increase to 4,000,000 in 111 years, but other estimates seem to authorise a belief that it ought to be 4,500,000.
1710	5,240,000	1,270,000	6,510,000	
1720	5,565,000	1,390,000	6,955,000	
1730	5,796,000	1,309,000	7,105,000	
1740	6,064,000	1,222,000	7,286,000	
1750	6,467,000	1,403,000	7,870,000	
1760	6,736,000	1,363,000	8,099,000	
1770	7,428,000	1,434,000	8,862,000	
1780	7,953,000	1,458,000	9,411,000	
1785	8,016,000	1,475,000	9,491,000	
1790	8,675,000	1,567,000	10,242,000	
1795	9,055,000	1,669,000	10,724,000	
1801	9,163,000	1,649,000	10,817,000	
1811	10,488,000	1,865,000	12,353,000	

Thus it would appear that with one exception, (in 1710) the population of England has progressively increased in 111 years from 5,475,000 to 10,488,000, and in Scotland from 1,048,000 to 1,865,000, exhibiting a less proportion than that of England, perhaps occasioned by more considerable emigrations from the latter country. The whole is somewhat short of 100 per cent. for Great Britain, while, according to the presumed population of Ireland, the increase amounts to 166 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent.

Whatever might have been the situation of Ireland anterior to the last century, it should seem that at least during the last 90 years, there has been a progressive increase of that species of food which tended to nourish and produce a dense population; and hence, as this food (potatoes) required infinitely less land than those articles of sustenance upon which the people of other countries have been fed, and being obtained at a very diminished expence, and generally most abundant, and in the progress of increasing every year, the checks on population have not operated in Ireland in the same ratio as in Great Britain, while even in the latter country the more rapid increase which has taken place within the last thirty years may be partly attributed to

the regularly increasing culture and use of potatoes, particularly in the counties north of the river Trent, and in Wales and Scotland. (e)

While it is admitted that the population of every country is in a great measure governed and limited by the abundance or scarcity of provisions, there is perhaps no single cause that affects it so powerfully as *the kind and quality of food, which chance or usage has introduced among the people*:—And it is a curious and interesting fact, that *one fourth part* of that extent of land which is requisite, according to the common mode of tillage, to furnish a sufficiency of wheat for the support of a labourer's family of *eight children*, will yield potatoes sufficient for the nourishment and support of a family equally numerous for the same space of time, without any diminution in point of athletic strength. (f)

Wherever therefore that species of food to which the people of a country have been accustomed can be procured in abundance, and at a cheap rate, marriages will be frequent and the people will multiply, and perhaps to this cause alone, (*the abun-*

(e) Potatoes were early introduced into Lancashire, and gradually into Wales and all the counties North of the Trent, and with oatmeal now form a very considerable proportion of the food of the people. In the counties south of the Trent, the progress has been slow, until within the last twenty years; but still, comparatively speaking, potatoes are not consumed in large quantities. In Scotland, however, the consumption is very general, and approaches nearly to that of the North of Ireland. And it is evident to demonstration, that but for potatoes there must have been many famines not only in Scotland and Ireland, but in the more sterile districts of England and Wales, where potatoes have constituted a large proportion of the food of the people.

(f) According to the system of feeding the lower orders of the people in Ireland, it appears evident that in that country a much larger population can be reared and maintained than in Great Britain.

“If any one doubts (says Mr. Arthur Young) the comparative plenty which attends the board of a poor native of England and Ireland, let him attend to their meals. The sparingness with which our labourer in England eats his bread and cheese is well known; mark the Irishman's potatoe bowl placed on the floor, the whole family on their hams around it devouring a quantity almost incredible; the beggar seating himself to it with a hearty welcome, the pig taking his share as readily as the wife, the cocks, hens, turkeys, geese, the cur, the cat, and perhaps the cow—and all partaking of the same dish. No man can have often been a witness of it without being convinced of the plenty, and I will add, the cheerfulness that attends it.”

The same author proceeds to say “when I see the people of a country with well formed vigorous bodies and their cottages swarming with children;—when I see their men athletic and their women beautiful, I know not how to believe them subsisting on unwholesome food.”

Young's Tour in Ireland, Vol. II. part 2d page 33.

The poorest cottiers in Ireland have generally raised above an ample supply of potatoes for their families, enough to fatten or rear two or three pigs besides poultry, and always enough to enable them to exercise their characteristic hospitality to the vagrant stranger or more indigent neighbour. Thus a redundancy of that simple but wholesome food has almost been uniformly secured, and as no expedient has been found for preserving potatoes longer than a year, the effects of *monopoly or artificial scarcity* have never been experienced.

Newenham's Statistical and Historical Inquiry into the progress and magnitude of the population of Ireland, 1805—pages 16 and 17.

dance of potatoes) is to be attributed the rapid and growing population of Ireland; and when the habits of the labouring people are considered in connection with the fertility of the soil, and the salubrity of the climate, and the vast tracts of land still uncultivated or badly cultivated in Ireland, little doubt can be entertained of the surface of that country producing, not only food sufficient to support a population of ten millions, but also from the redundancy to feed three or four millions of the inhabitants of Great Britain. (g)

It is worthy of remark, that wherever oatmeal, barleymeal, potatoes, and milk, form the chief part of the food of the labouring people, as in several of the counties in England north of the Trent, and in the whole of Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, a greater abundance prevails; and from the variety of modes of cookery of which this vegetable food is susceptible, the luxury of a poor man's family is constituted. This mode of living is totally unknown in the southern counties in England, where the food of the poorest classes admits of very few changes, or much variation, and which is never very abundant. To this cause may perhaps be attributed the vast diversity with respect to the number of persons who receive parish relief in the southern and northern counties of England. Wherever the country exhibits the greatest and most general attributes of fertility; wherever the surface is covered with the most abundant crops, and the finest verdure, there generally is to be found the greatest portion of indigence. (h) In Sussex and Wiltshire the number of Paupers average 23 per cent. or

(g) In addition to the vast tracts of land of the best quality which remains as yet uncultivated in Ireland, it is well known that with the advantage of an improved husbandry a very large proportion of the land, at present under very defective tillage in that country, may be made to yield nearly three times its present produce in wheat; and consequently, the demand for that article continuing unabated may be rendered three times more valuable to the landlord and tenant.

A much greater number of persons may subsist by a given portion of land under potatoes than under any sort of corn, consequently a greater command of labour is obtained by the former than by the latter.

The produce of potatoes to wheat which is as *ten to one*, or rather after making a fair deduction for the watery nature of the former is about *six to one* in point of nutriment. A stone of potatoes will lose about 1-12th in boiling. The average produce of potatoes throughout Ireland is about 50 barrels from the English acre; but by Mr. Rawson's improved mode of culture, 196 barrels (each barrel weighing 282 pounds) of the potatoe called the *red nosed Kidney* have been obtained from the Irish acre which is equal to 121 from the English.—19½ tons of an inferior sort of potatoe called Mildrum, or 156 barrels, have been obtained from one acre English measure. Thus by an improved method of cultivation an acre of this valuable root may be made to yield three times as much as its ordinary produce, and the land rendered capable of subsisting three times the present number of people, and of course be rendered three times as valuable. The number of people who may be subsisted by potatoes produced by a comparatively small number of acres, if the culture were carried to its utmost perfection, is astonishingly great. One hundred thousand English acres would produce more than sufficient for 100,000 people.

Newenham's view of the Natural, Political, and Commercial state of Ireland, 1809. page 59.

(h) According to the pauper returns made to Parliament in 1803, the following singular facts appear strongly demonstrative of the superior resources for accessible nourishment suitable to the taste of the people

nearly one fourth of the population. In Cumberland they do not exceed 5 per cent. or one twentieth part.

In Scotland and Ireland, where no regular assessment for the poor exists, the people are reared, and it has been seen that they multiply, particularly in the latter country, far beyond the ratio of increase in Great Britain, where perhaps however an increase is scarcely to be wished under the same circumstances of incivilization, filth and misery, which so strongly characterise the mode of living which prevails among the peasantry in Ireland. Of food suitable to their taste and habits they appear to have enough; but they are unacquainted with and totally unconscious of the power they possess of acquiring those little comforts and conveniences which apply to the labouring classes in Great Britain whose food and means of acquiring it are nearly the same in the countries north of the Trent.

The climate of Ireland is said to have gradually undergone a considerable change for the better since about the middle of the 17th century. The thick woods which covered the greater part of the country do not now exist, while the deep rich soil with which it abounds is no longer undrained or in a state of nature. The turf bogs have been greatly diminished since the commencement of the last century, and much of the richest pasture lands have been turned into tillage, while those unproductive have been reclaimed, still leaving large tracts for the pasture of cattle which certainly have not decreased notwithstanding the great augmentation of tillage. Yet still the agriculture of Ireland as well as the general improvement of the country may be said to be in its infancy. It however possesses every thing in climate and soil calculated to render it the granary of Great Britain, and a considerable security against scarcity arising from a redundant population (i); but much yet remains to be done in both countries to render the soil productive to the extent of which it is capable. Calculating on this increased production, and presuming on a still more extended cul-

which prevail in most of the counties north of the Trent, manifested by the diminished number of paupers in the north compared with the labouring people in the south who inhabit a much more fertile country.

In Cumberland, Cornwall, Lancaster, Nottingham, and the East Riding of York- } or less than $\frac{1}{15}$ part
shire, the number of paupers in each 100 of the population average 7 in the 100 } of the inhabitants.

In Oxford 20, Berkshire 21 - - - average $20\frac{1}{2}$ in the 100, more than $\frac{1}{5}$ part of the inhabitants.

In Sussex and Wiltshire - - - average 23 in the 100, nearly $\frac{1}{4}$ part of the inhabitants.

See Colquhoun's Treatise on Indigence 1806. Published by Hatchard, page 255—266, for a general account of the number of paupers in each county, and generally for other details elucidating many points immediately connected with population, and the habits of the people with regard to food.

(i) Ireland begins to supply Great Britain with nearly one million of barrels of grain, and with other necessary provisions to the amount of upwards of three millions sterling, and which certainly might with vast advantages to both countries be rendered competent to supply as much as Great Britain can require.

Newenham's View, preface pages 4 and 5—1805.

tivation of potatoes in the southern counties of England, the food which may be produced in Great Britain and Ireland may fairly be estimated as equal to the consumption of 25,000,000 of inhabitants; but the progress in the nature of things must be gradual, and it will become the province and duty of the legislature so to encourage the advance, as to render the increase of the productions of the soil progressively equal to the gradual augmentation of the population from year to year.

Viewing with an attentive eye the progress of population in Great Britain and Ireland at the present crisis, it appears probable that an increase of vegetable and animal food equal to the consumption of two millions of individuals must be obtained from improved cultivation, from fisheries, and from importation every ten years; making an accession of inhabitants in each year equal to a new population of 200,000 souls.

There can be no doubt of the resources of Great Britain and Ireland being equal to this additional consumption, and the only difficulty that occurs is, as to the practicable means to be pursued for the purpose of making the productions of the soil and the sea keep pace with the progressive increase of the population. Ireland, in this respect, possessing in proportion to its extent much greater facilities than Great Britain, becomes a greater object of immediate attention. As it relates to grain and animal food these facilities are to be traced not less to the fertility of the soil than to the habits of the mass of the people, since a very large proportion of their subsistence does not consist of corn or animal food (k); and hence a greater proportion of both can be spared to supply the wants arising from the growing population of Great Britain, and for the subsistence of the navy and army at home and abroad.

(k) There are sufficient grounds for affirming, that the tillage of Ireland is actually at least six times more extensive than it was 21 years ago, and consequently, there are six times more people employed in the business; the different operations of which not having been in the least simplified or facilitated in that period, the number of people therefore necessary to perform the operations of tillage in Ireland is much greater than in England. That pasturage has been very considerably extended in Ireland notwithstanding the amazing increase of tillage in that country, is a fact of which there can be no doubt. We may say that one year with another there have been of late years about 50,000 more soldiers and their followers than from 1764 to 1770, while at the same time it may be fairly assumed that there are 200,000 consumers of animal food more than during the period above-mentioned.

Supposing each soldier consumes annually 150lbs. of Beef, the annual consumption of this additional number will be	-	-	-	-	-	-	33,482 barrels.
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Supposing also that the 200,000 additional consumers require $\frac{1}{4}$ lb of Beef daily or about 91lbs a year, it will amount to	-	-	-	-	-	-	81,250 ditto:
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To which add the exportation of last year, 1804	-	-	-	-	-	-	136,391 ditto.
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251,123 barrels.

From which it appears that there is an excess of 50,324 barrels more than there were actually exported during a period of the greatest exportation, namely in the year 1770 (before tillage had made any progress) when there were 200,799 barrels exported.

Newenham's Inquiry into the Population of Ireland, pages 187 and 188.

In addition to the food to be derived from the soil in both countries much may be obtained from the Ocean which surrounds them. No doubt can be entertained of the productive nature of the fisheries and of the practicability of rendering this nutritious food an article of general consumption, not only in the maritime, but also in all the inland districts of Great Britain and Ireland to the great comfort and relief of the labouring classes. The experiments which have been recently made in the laudable attempts to afford assistance to the distressed manufacturers in the midland counties of England incontestibly prove the truth of this assertion.

While butcher's meat has almost become inaccessible to the labouring classes in consequence of the present high prices, namely about £70 a ton, under proper encouragement fish, suitable to the taste of the people, and of the best kinds and qualities, may be afforded at from £16 to 18 a ton to the consumers. (1)

(1) Notwithstanding the difficulties which have been heretofore opposed to a more abundant supply of fish, so as to constitute a part of the food of all classes of the community, no doubt can be entertained of the practicability of procuring fish in the British and Irish Seas, equal to one third or perhaps one half of the animal food which would be required for the support of those classes of the community to whom it is at present inaccessible. But in order to render it acceptable to the labouring classes it must be introduced as a marketable article in a corned state, and must be limited to shoal fish, such as *herrings*, *pilchards*, and *mackarel*, and to *cod*, *ling*, *hake*, and all other fish of a large size, which from their abundance can be easily procured and afforded with a profit at a cheap rate. Being slightly salted, the dealers will run no risk by conveying them into the interior of the country, while salt being the poor man's sauce and the chief seasoning to his potatoes, they will be universally preferred to the fresh fish, were it even practicable to convey it in large quantities to the interior without risk of putridity before it could find a market. Since the introduction of potatoes great facilities are afforded towards reconciling the mass of the people to the use of fish, which did not exist when bread only was the vegetable food of the people. The corned fish gives a relish to the potatoe, and the potatoe to the fish. Already in the county of Cornwall and several other maritime districts, corned fish and potatoes form a very large proportion of the food of the inferior classes of the people; and although fresh fish is equally as accessible as salt to those inhabiting the coast, they will not purchase it even at a reduced price. Certainly this practicable resource for the support of a more dense population exists in a greater degree in Great Britain and Ireland than in most countries in the world (the British colonies in America excepted); and hence it is within the power of the legislature and government of the country by appropriate regulations to increase the food of the mass of the people to an incalculable extent, rendering it accessible to the poorest classes of the community; while it might give very profitable employment to capitals extending in the aggregate even to three or four millions sterling, besides rearing a hardy race of men for the naval defence of the country, and for carrying on its extensive commerce.

Fisheries upon a large scale round the coast would be no sooner organized than hordes of small dealers, called Hucksters, would resort to the sea coasts, and circulate the corned fish through every part of the interior of the country, not excepting the villages. In Great Britain where there are no less than 1183 towns containing 5,272,712 inhabitants, besides perhaps six times the number of villages, where fish could be dealt out to 6,683,591, forming the rural population, at very moderate prices; it is scarcely possible to conceive by what other means a greater blessing could be conferred on the nation. Such a state of things would give a new and improved character to the labouring people:—an independence of mind which they cannot feel at present,—a security against want,—a luxury which has been heretofore inaccessible,—a diminution in a considerable

Certain it is, that the resources of Great Britain and Ireland for the maintenance and support of an extended population are infinitely greater than appears to those who have not attentively considered the subject; while the state of Europe and the world requires that they should be rendered available by every possible encouragement. The colonies and dominions of the crown, of unexampled extent, requiring the strong arm of power for defence, renders it also indispensably necessary that the population of the parent state should be augmented; and that nothing within the power of legislation should be permitted to exist which should operate as a check. In most of the nations of Europe, although the checks to population are superabundant, there is a strong tendency to increase the human species. Wherever the commerce between the sexes is regulated by marriage, and a provision *for that mode of subsistence, to which each class in the community is accustomed, can be procured with a tolerable degree of certainty*, there the people will increase; and the rapidity as well as the extent of the increase will be proportioned to the degree in which these causes exist. To promote these causes therefore, by multiplying the resources for productive labour and the quantity of food, ought to be the first object of statesmen in all countries, but more particularly in this country where the resources are so abundant, not only to promote an increased population in the parent state, but to provide for any redundancy by emigrations to the numerous colonies and dependencies of the crown, where the productive labour of the emigrants may by wise regulations be rendered in many instances more beneficial to the empire at large, and to the commerce and manufactures of the parent state, than if no such emigrations had taken place. (m) No nation ever possessed such resources for the beneficial employment of a redundant population as Great Britain at the present moment, since almost every colony dependent on the crown may receive benefit from emigration to an extent upon the whole beyond calculation. While the northern colonies in America

degree of the parish rates, and a gradual decrease of that debasement of character which parochial relief engenders. When new and improved habits should through this medium be fully fixed, the greater diversity of food, which would be accessible at moderate prices to every labourer, would speedily produce a moral effect highly interesting, and incalculably beneficial to the nation by rendering the surplus labour of the community more productive, through which medium only empires, kingdoms, and states, become opulent and powerful.

(m) The British colonies in North America (see Table, No. 1. page 46) from being already under cultivation and in the progress of improvement exhibit none of those obstructions and difficulties which emigrants must experience who remove to a howling wilderness without food or shelter or the means of procuring it until by excessive labour and incredible privations they at length obtain a scanty subsistence from the produce of the soil. From the improving state of these colonies every facility can be afforded to new settlers. Food in abundance for man and beast can be purchased at a cheap rate until the end of the first and partly of the second year, when the industry of the emigrant will render it no longer necessary; while the incalculable quantities and the great variety of the finest fish with which the seas and all the great rivers which intersect the maritime part of the country abound renders this species of food accessible for almost nothing. The value of these fisheries to the parent state will be more obvious after the lapse of 20 or 30 years than at present. Certain it is, however, that their value is *beyond all calculation*. And their preservation as a part of the British empire is of the most vital importance.

offer to the industrious emigrant a certain return for labour with an equally certain provision for many generations, the colonies within the tropics hold out in some respects even superior advantages, which have never been sufficiently understood; since a small portion of clothing and still less of fuel is necessary. Two crops of Indian corn can be obtained in a year in addition to other nutritious and wholesome vegetable food obtained without much labour or expence, and the minor articles of exportable produce, such as coffee, cocoa, cotton, and various other productions of considerable value may be raised in small quantities to great advantage; and where all the children of a family after a certain age can be rendered useful in light agricultural pursuits much earlier than in the northern countries where great athletic strength is necessary to clear the lands and prepare it for tillage. In the southern countries a less portion of land is required to maintain a family and to feed stock, and by degrees, as the timber is removed and the country laid open, it would become perhaps as healthy as the British territories in the East. (n) Emigration is therefore a great resource where in any country the accessible food is not equal to the wants of the people. Where new colonies have been once securely established (which is happily the case as it relates to this country) the difficulty of emigration is greatly diminished, while the emigrants are not lost to the parent state.

The degree of productive labour will depend on the country to which the emigrants resort. In Canada for instance, where new settlers must be subjected at first to great exertions and labour to render the soil productive, the returns will be slow for a length of time, and not very abundant, but in course of years all difficulties vanish. In the colonies within the tropics more immediate returns may be expected, while the surplus produce which may be raised will be much more valuable and in greater variety than in the northern climates.

Under the peculiar circumstances of the British empire it should seem to be impolitic to prevent emigration. It is a great mistake to suppose it injurious to any country where there is a redundant population, more particularly those countries which possess colonies requiring an accession of people, and where the condition of the emigrants is likely to be

(n) The British territories in the West Indies afford a much greater resource than may appear at first view. On an attentive consideration of the interesting details in the Table No. 1, page 46, the contrast between the white, and the coloured and black population cannot fail to be very striking. With some few exceptions (and comparatively speaking they are very few) there is scarcely a proprietor of a West India estate who considers that country his home, although his dependence for subsistence is principally on the proper cultivation of his estate, and the result is, that one and all take up their residence in Britain, the moment the state of their finances will enable them to support an appearance in this country; and hence it follows, that the white population is so inconsiderable in all the colonies as to render it impossible to quell an insurrection of the negroes or people of colour, should circumstances unfortunately occur to render resistance necessary for the protection of property. Every proprietor therefore is greatly interested not only in promoting the introduction of white settlers, but of affording them every facility in rendering their situation comfortable and their industry productive. On the return of peace vast numbers of Germans as well as British, who have long served in the regiments stationed in the West Indies, and who are inured to the climate, would be happy to possess a few acres of mountain land, unfit for the cultivation of sugar, where they might settle for life with their progeny, and where with half

improved. There is not the shadow of cause to apprehend that emigration will weaken or depopulate any state where there is a tendency to an increase of people beyond the means of subsistence. On the contrary, in consequence of the resources for employment being less divided by a reduced competition and cheaper food, those who remain behind will have a greater inducement to marry; and the people will multiply in a greater ratio than under the checks incident to a redundant population.

It has been already observed, that in the actual circumstances of every country the principle of population generally (or perhaps with some few exceptions) exerts itself to the utmost extent. In the United States of America, where food is so abundant as to admit of a considerable exportation, and where it is accessible to all classes of the community, the population is known to double in about - - - - - 23 years.

In Canada, the population will probably at present double in - - - - - 28 years.

In Russia, where there is an excess of food, to double the population is supposed to require - - - - - 36 years.

In Great Britain, according to the progress of population which has been disclosed, it may be expected to double in - - - - - 54 years.

In Ireland, it has been already seen that according to Mr. Newenham's calculation it doubles in - - - - - 46 years.

In France, exclusive of the new territory, the population before the revolutionary war was 26,363,074. Taking the annual births at one million and estimating that $\frac{1}{3}$ would die under 18, it follows that 600,000 persons will annually arrive at the age of 18, of which perhaps 250,000 may be fit to bear arms. This drain, however, would soon depopulate the country if taken yearly. Perhaps 80,000 could be spared without injury; to this 80,000 might possibly be added 70,000 from unmarried males, making in the whole 150,000. It is probable that the population of France, making allowance for the checks given to it by the excessive drains occasioned by a war of upwards of 20 years, may double perhaps in about - - - - - 50 years.

the labour to which they would be subject in Europe they would be able to support a family. In most of the islands there are tracts of land, belonging to the crown, which would support a considerable population of *white stationary inhabitants*, upon whom the security of the colonies will ultimately depend. In *Jamaica*, *Dominica*, but above all in *Trinidad*, ample resources are to be found for a very dense population, while all the other colonies (Barbadoes and some of the smaller islands excepted) might receive more or less, where the labour of these people in procuring lumber with the assistance of saw-mills, and in raising Indian corn and other provisions would in a short time render the islands independent of the United States for every article, flour only excepted; since Canada and the adjacent British colonies would furnish the staves necessary for rum puncheons. The timber for all other purposes may be found in the different islands, or imported from the colonies. A white population, reared up in the colonies, would also constitute a competent and efficient militia by which the number of the national troops might be diminished so as to produce a very large saving to the state. But independently of all these considerations the circumstances under which the West India colonies are placed with a coloured and black population in the proportion comprising more than one million and fifty thousand under the controul of about 100,000 whites, of which not above one in four or about 25,000 in the whole can be supposed capable of mili-

With respect to most of the other nations of Europe few accurate estimates can be formed. The increase or diminution of the population will in a great degree depend on the abundance or scarcity of food, on the resources for productive labour, and on the advantages which may be derived from a good or bad government. In some countries, such as Norway and Sweden, where the food raised is not equal to the consumption of the people and where the resources for labour are as scanty, the population may retrograde or at most will remain stationary, while in others it may double at periods extending from 60 to 100 years.

If the United States of America were to continue increasing in the same ratio as at present, the inhabitants would amount to about 333,000,000 in 150 years, and would exceed China, and doubtless the whole of this immense population would speak the *English language*. It may safely be presumed, that population when unshackled goes on doubling every 25 years. In the back settlements of America it has doubled even in 15 years.

In addition to abundance of food, accessible to all classes of the people, the healthiness of a country tends much to promote population. In this respect it should seem that Great Britain has undergone a progressive improvement, which may possibly be accounted for partly by greater comfort and cleanliness to be found in the cottages;—from the measures adopted in the metropolis and other great towns by the fever institutions for the purpose of removing patients, and white-washing and fumigating the dwellings of the poor where any contagious distemper is known to prevail, and generally by draining the marshes in different parts of the country;—*and above all by the salutary effects of vaccination*, which last, however, will apply equally to Europe and America.

In the report of the population as compiled by Mr. Rickman, and laid before Parliament in 1811, he states, that the annual number of burials, as collected in pursuance of the "Population Acts in 1801 and 1811," authorizes a satisfactory diminishing mortality in

tary duty, evinces the policy of a more extended European population. This observation applies both to the British and the captured colonies. In the latter, the proportion of the Europeans is greater. In the British Colonies the white population is in the proportion of somewhat less than 65,000 (including Jamaica) to 634,000. Contemplating this great disparity, and the desire inherent in human nature predisposing the strong to overpower the weak, it is impossible to look forward to a period of fifty years without anticipating a negro government in all the West India Islands, unless measures are gradually adopted for the purpose of encouraging and establishing a white population. Since the abolition of the slave trade, happily for the negro labourers, an improved system has generally taken place on all well regulated estates; the young men are induced to marry early in life and to live with their wives and children, or with their near relations. From the circumstance, however, of the males generally exceeding the females, it should seem that no increase in the population has taken place, partly occasioned by the prevalence of the locked-jaw which proves fatal to many infants about the 9th or 10th day after the birth. The actual increase or diminution can only be obtained by an uniform law in the colonies, directing a Census to be made on a given day in each year, ascertaining the births and deaths. It is conjectured by those who possess local knowledge that the births (calculating on children who have survived the 10th day) amount to about 2½ per cent, and the deaths about the same proportion.

England since the year 1780. The result of his enquiries exhibit the following progressive diminution

In 1780—one person in 40 died annually.

1790—one person in 45 Idem.

1800—one person in 47 Idem.

1810—one person in 49 or 50 . Idem. Births 1 in 34. Marriages 1 in 122.

And that the increased population, in these years, has caused an augmented proportion. Mr. Malthus, who wrote previous to the returns of 1811, estimates the mortality of England

at one in 40, births 1 in 30.

The same able and intelligent author estimates the mortality

of Norway at one in 48. Idem 1 in 34.

of Russia at one in 48. Idem 1 in 26.

of Sweden at one in 35. Idem 1 in 28.

of Holland at one in 23. Idem 1 in 23.

of France at one in 30. Idem 1 in 25.

The nearest average measure of mortality for all countries, according to Susmitch, is about 1 in 36, but it varies almost in every district according to local circumstances. In low swampy countries the mortality is much greater than in situations more elevated and where the inhabitants breathe a purer air. Holland exhibits a strong proof of the effect of low situations upon the duration of human life. Towns are also considered as unfavourable to health and longevity; and yet in Great Britain they are found in point of inhabitants to approach very nearly to the rural population of the country. It had been conceived by political economists, who have previously considered this branch of the subject, that the population of the towns in Great Britain comprised about one third of the whole; but from an accurate and laborious investigation which enables the author to exhibit in the Table No. I from page 29 to 43, the actual population of every town in Great Britain (in 1811) the following are the results which are to be found in no work heretofore brought under the review of the public:—

	Counties.	Towns.	Houses.	Inhabitants.		Houses.	Inhabitants.	Total Houses.	Total Inhabitants.
Namely—In England	40	861	746,308	4,221,814	In the Country	979,723	5,317,013	1,726,031	9,538,827
In Wales	12	78	29,416	143,467	Idem	93,077	468,321	122,493	611,788
In Scotland	32	244	139,670	907,431	Idem	175,752	898,257	315,422	1,805,688
	<u>84</u>	<u>1183</u>	<u>915,394</u>	<u>5,272,712</u>		<u>1,248,552</u>	<u>6,683,591</u>	<u>2,163,946</u>	<u>11,956,303</u>

Thus it appears, that in England the inhabitants of the country only exceed those in the towns to the extent of 95,199 persons, less than $\frac{1}{11}$ part; whereas in Wales the difference is much greater, being more than double on the whole population; while in Scotland the population in the country and in the towns is nearly equal. During the 10 years, between 1801 and 1811, the increase of the inhabitants of Great Britain in the country and the towns stands thus—

The inhabitants of the country have increased	787,612	Houses have increased	127,661
The inhabitants of the towns have increased	696,643	Idem	98,796
Total	<u>1,484,255</u>	Total	<u>226,457</u>

Which shews that there is a greater tendency to populate the towns than the country. It is probable many of the buildings erected for the accommodation of the rural population are barns, stables, and other out-houses for agricultural purposes, whereas those erected in towns are generally for the dwellings of the inhabitants; and it should seem probable that a greater portion of the population of Great Britain live in towns than in any other country, Holland perhaps excepted, and yet it appears that the general mortality has been progressively diminishing.

By a reference to the Tables annexed to this chapter, there will be found a complete history of the population, marriages, baptisms, and deaths. The increase of the former, taken in connection with the progressive augmentation of houses in every town and village in the country, clearly and decidedly demonstrates the growing prosperity of the country. In England, where the public registers can be depended on, it will be found that during 10 years, from 1801 to 1811, the baptisms have increased nearly 25 per cent, while the marriages exceed 26 per cent. within the same period. In Wales, the baptisms appear to have increased about 30 per cent, and the marriages 35 per cent, while the population of Great Britain during this period has acquired an augmentation exceeding 14 per cent. upon the whole.

Thus it is evident, that the population is in the regular progress of augmentation every year. It is an established and incontrovertible maxim in political economy, that as the law of nature makes food necessary to man, the population of a country can never increase beyond the lowest nourishment capable of supporting it: hence it may be fairly inferred, that with the aid of food, obtained from other countries, the means of subsistence have generally kept pace with the population of Great Britain and Ireland since the commencement of the last and present century. Such means, however, have afforded no surplus, and may be considered as generally scanty, since the uniform and progressive advance of corn, grain, animal food, and all articles of the first necessity during the last twenty years, clearly demonstrates, that the demand has been somewhat greater than the supply; and hence appears the imperious necessity of adopting measures calculated to meet this exigency by such encouragements and arrangements as shall, by increasing the productions of the soil and sea, prove adequate to the progressive augmentation of consumers. For although from the improved state of cultivation, it is not (as in earlier times) in the nature of things that absolute famine can exist in any part of Europe, and far less in America; yet as scarcities tend to raise prices greatly above the level which the actual deficiency warrants, it produces evils in the body politic, against which it is the duty and interest of all governments to guard with the utmost jealousy. It can be demonstrated from calculation, so as to amount nearly to conviction, that the united scarcities of 1800, 1801, 1810, 1811, and 1812, drew from the consumers of corn £60,000,000 sterling more than would have passed into the hands of the cultivators of the soil had not such scarcities, or apprehended scarcities (in 1811 and 1812) taken place, while such sums drawn from the consumers without being materially felt proves the immense resources and opulence of the country; that proportion of it which goes to strangers operates as a bounty on the

improvement of a foreign instead of a British soil: a consideration of great importance. In as far as it has centered with the farmers of Great Britain and Ireland, it has a reproductive quality beneficial to the state, since by increasing the capitals of the cultivators they are not only enabled to augment the produce of the soil both in vegetable and animal food, but their increased opulence adds to the resources of the country and to its productive labour. It will be seen in the sequel that such a result is rendered manifest, and that a partial and temporary evil sometimes produces a general good. It gives an impetus to population, so necessary under the peculiar circumstances of Great Britain and Ireland, not only with a view to the opulence of the parent state, but for the defence of the dominions of the crown now of unexampled extent. It is not, however, by an overstrained cultivation extending to waste and sterile lands, that a nation is to derive those advantages which may be expected from an increase of the food of man. The produce of the soil must always be sufficiently prolific to repay the husbandman liberally for his labour and capital, and to enable him to pay rent, taxes, and the charges of cultivation, otherwise he proceeds upon an erroneous principle, and his labour is lost to himself and to the community; happily, however, there is much land both in Great Britain and Ireland at present yielding little or nothing, which by labour, skill, and capital, can be rendered extremely productive, while by an improved system of agriculture generally pervading the country, the lands at present under cultivation may be made to produce much larger returns; and such is said to be the effect of the new discoveries with respect to cultivation in Norfolk, and the best cultivated corn counties in Great Britain and Ireland, that agriculture is supposed to be still in its infancy, holding out rational expectations that the productions of the soil even on the best cultivated lands may be made to yield much more abundantly. What then may be expected from similar improvements extended to vast tracts of land where agriculture has undergone little or no change for several centuries! Such extension becomes of infinite importance when the pressures occasioned by years of scarcity are contemplated, and when it is discovered how small a proportion of the consumption of a nation having an extended population can be obtained from foreign countries. (o) Upon the whole, it is a pleasing

(o) The greatest importation of corn, grain, flour, meal, and rice into Great Britain which ever took place was in the year 1802—namely,

	Quarters	Quarters		Cwts.	Cwts.
Wheat	1,186,237		Wheat flour	833,016	
Barley	113,966		Rye flour	177,494	
Rye	99,874		Oatmeal	63	
Maize	44,472	1,444,549	Maize flour	113,141	1,123,714
Oats	582,628		Rice	-	310,609
Peas	44,218				
Beans	16,246	643,092			
					Total 1,434,323

Total 2,087,641 requiring no less on the average of 250 tons than 1,670 ships for 417,528 tons.
Meal and flour supposed to be laden in ships averaging also 250 tons 287 ships for 71,716

Total	1,957	489,244
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circumstance to reflect, that the United Kingdom possesses ample resources to produce all those advantages tending to the comfort and happiness of the people. The progress of improved agriculture in England and Scotland has advanced in a ratio within the last sixty years which could not have been conceived possible even by the most sanguine mind.

According to the accounts presented to Parliament the value of this immense importation, at the average market price at the time, amounted to £10,149,098 sterling—of which it is presumed that there was

appropriated to the food of man	£7,611,824
And to the food of horses and other animals, comprising oats, beans, peas, damaged grain, and offal	2,537,274
	<u>£10,149,098</u>

Presuming, therefore, at the high prices of 1801 that each individual of the then resident population of 10,817,000 persons consumed at the rate of 5d. a day in bread corn, the foreign supply for the food of man would be equal to about 33 $\frac{1}{2}$ days' consumption.

The importation of 1802, which after deducting the value of British corn exported amounted

		to (first deducting also $\frac{1}{4}$ for horses and stock)		£1,011,551 about			
Idem	1803		Idem		Idem	578,274	4 $\frac{2}{5}$ Idem
Idem	1804		Idem		Idem	989,431	2 $\frac{1}{2}$ Idem
Idem	1805		Idem		Idem	2,437,297	4 $\frac{2}{5}$ Idem
Idem	1806		Idem		Idem	576,989	10 $\frac{1}{4}$ Idem
Idem	1807		Idem		Idem	1,213,972	2 $\frac{2}{5}$ Idem
Idem	1808		Idem		Idem Sur- plus of	147,771	5 Idem
Idem	1809		Idem		Idem	1,805,121	7 $\frac{1}{5}$ Idem
Idem	1810		Idem		Idem	4,770,707	18 $\frac{1}{5}$ Idem
Idem	1811		Idem		Idem	149,502	$\frac{3}{5}$ Idem
Idem	1812		Idem		Idem	340,290	1 $\frac{1}{10}$ Idem

In the above calculation the progressive increase of the population each year is taken into consideration. The corn, grain, and meal of all kinds, imported during the last 15 years, namely, from 1798 to 1812, including three years of great scarcity, cost on an average £3,072,185 from which after deducting the average amount of British corn, grain, flour, and meal exported during the same period amounting to £2,589,921, deducting therefrom $\frac{1}{4}$ for grain, damaged corn, and offal appropriated to the use of horses, hogs, and cattle, the supply for the food of man calculated on an average of the increasing population would probably amount to about 7 $\frac{2}{10}$ days' consumption.

The inference to be drawn from these facts is very consoling, since it proves the danger of trusting to foreign supplies, which, when even carried to the greatest possible extent so as to require nearly 2000 cargoes at the expence of 10,000,000 of money drawn from the resources of the country, will after all, (calculating upon the present resident population) only afford human subsistence for about 30 days. During the three years of scarcity, namely, 1800, 1801, and 1810, foreign nations received from Great Britain £25,972,958 for corn, grain, flour, &c. ;—

* It appears from the accounts presented to Parliament and inserted in the report of the Committee appointed in 1812 to enquire into the corn trade of the United Kingdom (page 27) that the value of the corn, grain, meal and flour, imported from Ireland in 1808, 1809, 1810, 1811, and 1812, amounted in the aggregate to £6,507,884, and that in 1812 the importation amounted to £1,641,683, and that the foreign supplies only extended to £453,720, which shews that although prices continued high, the resources of Great Britain and Ireland proved nearly equal to the whole consumption, and if the exports from Ireland are included, the United Kingdom had a surplus beyond it.

It may fairly be presumed that the produce from the soil in England has more than doubled. In Scotland it has certainly trebled; while in Ireland, under all the disadvantages of deficient husbandry, there are strong grounds to suppose that it has increased nearly four fold. (p) This branch of the subject however will be more fully discuss-

and in the course of the last 15 years to the amount of £46,582,776;—And yet the average relief gave to the population only about a single week's consumption.

From the facts which have been already disclosed no doubt can be entertained, that by removing the trammels which are opposed to the effectual cultivation of the soil of England and Ireland and affording to those countries the advantages which Scotland enjoys, so that the utmost encouragement may be given to an extensive rural population, by a free and unrestricted cultivation of the soil,—*the British Nation possesses the means of supporting a great increase of its present population without resorting to foreign countries for supplies.* With all the physical obstructions which attach to Scotland, arising from an ungenial climate and with (some few exceptions) a sterile soil, that country has increased in agriculture so as to be able to spare considerable quantities of Wheat for the London market every year, although the period is by no means remote when nearly the whole consumption of that article and flour was obtained from England. Under proper regulations therefore it is evident, that the resources of the nation for the support of a dense population will be found ample, by a more extended growth of corn under an improved system of husbandry, and above all by a greatly increased cultivation of potatoes in the Southern counties of England, and perhaps still more by an extension of the fisheries calculated to render the superabundance of this nutritious food accessible to the poorest day-labourer in the kingdom.

(p) It appears from the Report of the select committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into the state of the Corn Trade of the United Kingdom, printed the 11th of May 1813, page 3rd and 4th. “That in Great Britain there has been a great increase of tillage during the last ten years;—“that the land now in tillage is capable of being made much more productive by the extension of the “improved system of cultivation, and that much land, now in grass, is fit to be converted into tillage,—that “the answers of the Farming Society in Ireland shew that there has been a very considerable increase “of tillage in that Country in the course of the last ten years, estimated by many skilful persons at nearly “one fourth,—that the land, upon which seven barrels of wheat the acre was considered as a good return, “now yields by better management (without the loss of two seasons rent and labour under the system of “open fallow) at least ten barrels an acre,—that when all the various circumstances are taken into consi- “deration which exist in Ireland favourable to such an increase, the production of a much greater quan- “tity of corn may be expected than would be sufficient to provide for the average deficiency (calculated “on the importation for the last ten years,) of the produce of this country to supply its own wants. “The fertility of the soil,—the fitness of the climate,—the abundance of lime stone, and lime stone gravel,— “the cheapness of labour,—and the general convenience of water carriage,—together with the progress “made in the course of a few years in extending and improving the cultivation of the land form the “most complete proof of the ability of Ireland to become eminently serviceable to this country, by af- “fording to its great manufacturing population all kinds of food at moderate prices.

“In the last four years the value of the whole imported Corn was £18,934,359, of this was Irish Corn “£6,507,884, being something more than one third of the whole.”

“In the preceding sixteen years the value of the whole imported was £54,586,787,—of this was Irish, “£8,379,027, being £616,075 more than one seventh of the whole. Upon the whole, it appears to your “committee to be a fair practical inference to draw from this inquiry into the means which these countries “possess of growing an additional quantity of corn, that they are able to produce as much more corn in “addition to that which they already grow as would relieve them from the necessity of continuing in any “degree dependent for a supply on foreign countries.

ed in a subsequent chapter; as will also the resources for productive labour arising from the rapid and astonishing increase of commerce and manufactures,—holding out a well founded expectation, that the food necessary for an increased and increasing population may be furnished in abundance from the soil of Great Britain and Ireland, without depending on foreign supplies.

But above all let it never be forgotten, that under every advantage population may be checked and the resources of a country diminished by *a vicious and an immoral community*. That this has operated powerfully in England, in spite of the advantages she possesses above every country in Europe in affording resources for productive labour, no person will deny, who considers attentively the authentic statements of criminal delinquency in 1805, and the state of the poor as disclosed by the returns from the different parishes in 1803. The deformities in the human character, which these documents exhibit, will account for much of the evils which afflict society in vulgar life; and which entail upon the community at large the heavy burthen of

Mr. Newenham, in his statistical and historical inquiry into the progress and magnitude of the population of Ireland (1805) has inserted a curious and interesting table, the object of which is to shew that 17,452,638 acres will maintain a population of 8,418,224 inhabitants, according to the mode of living which prevails in that country. He allots 8,452,638 acres for the food of man and horses employed in agriculture, &c., and 8,500,000 for barley, store cattle, &c.—and 500,000 acres for groves, gardens, orchards, and towns.—And as Ireland is stated to contain 19,439,960 English acres, there will remain 1,987,322 acres, applicable to the support of a still larger population.

It appears from the Appendix No. 2, page 30. in the above-mentioned Report concerning the Corn Trade, that the following answers were given by the Board of Agriculture to certain queries put by the committee respecting the increase of the tillage in Great Britain—to its being capable of being rendered more productive by a more improved system of cultivation, &c.

Answer of the Board.

“ It appears from the Custom-house document, that the average Import of all sorts of Corn and Grain from 1793 to 1802, being 10 years, was 1,415,229 quarters per annum, and that of meal and flour during the same period was 299,019 Cwts. also that the Import of Corn and Grain during the 10 years from 1803 to 1812, was 1,066,198 quarters per annum, and of flour and meal 296,850 cwts. per annum; and as it also appears by the Registers of the population acts, that the increase of the people in the latter period compared with the former amounted to more than one million of souls. There is great reason to imagine that the tillage of Great Britain has increased. The Board has not the smallest difficulty in asserting, that the land now in tillage is capable of being made much more productive by an improved system of cultivation. There are in Great Britain considerable tracts of grass land, fit to be converted into tillage without any great preparatory expence, and in many cases at no greater expence than that of setting the plough to work. There are immense tracts of unproductive land, both wet and dry, that are capable of being brought into tillage, provided the local impediments of common rights, &c. were removed, and particularly if facility were given to the enclosure of small commons. The Board does not conceive that there has been any material extension of the culture of Barley, but on the contrary a decline; but that the increased culture of wheat has been considerable, and that of Barley still greater.

“ John Sinclair,
President.”

supporting nearly half a million of individuals arrived at an adult state and generally in the prime of life. (q) The aged and the infants, comprising more than half a million, are entitled to the public support. And it is the glory of England that the day-labourer, after wasting his strength in raising food and in furnishing habitations, cloathing, and other comforts for the community at large, should find an asylum and support from the bounty of the nation when the energies of nature are weakened and can be no longer available. The great error in the system is, that when reduced to practice it is found to embrace a range far beyond that point which had been contemplated by the legislature originally; nor has the wisdom of succeeding legislators been able to find a remedy in any modification of the pauper system. The evil is to be traced to ignorance, deficient education, and the want of a general diffusion of religious and moral instruction among the inferior classes of society.

Where are we to find any individuals male or female, who have been brought up by their parents or relations, who are not enjoying some degree of happiness from their virtues, or suffering a certain portion of misery from their vices;—benefiting by the examples of industry and moral rectitude, which were set before them in their progress to maturity, or rendered miserable by the improvident, careless, and vicious habits which were exhibited in the conduct of those to whom in infancy they looked up for protection, for good example, and for proper instruction?—The moral conduct and good example of parents have an immediate tendency to produce industry, prudence, discretion, and temperance, by which the human character is elevated in society; while vicious examples on the contrary never fail to produce misery and debasement, a disposition to idleness, and a propensity to immoral and criminal pursuits. Hence the incalculable importance of instilling universally into the minds of the rising generation a portion of that knowledge which parents and relations of virtuous habits among the inferior classes of society never fail to confer upon their children. How much would a general knowledge of this transmission of blessings contribute to excite and invigorate virtuous exertions?—How much would it not add to the general stock of comfort and happiness? To what an incalculable extent would it not go in exalting the national character, and in improving and extending the resources of the state?

(q) See Colquhoun's Treatise on Indigence pages 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47—54, 56, and 57. Population of England and Wales, 1801—8,872,980

Paupers receiving Parish relief, viz. page 57.		Adults permanently	336,199	Criminal offenders prosecuted,	
		Adults occasionally	305,899	viz. p. 45, 46, and 47,	
		Children permanently	315,150	Males	3,267
		In Workhouses including children	83,468	Females	1,338
				Total	4,605
		Total	1,040,716		

Human ingenuity has been exerted perhaps more on the subject of devising means to ameliorate the condition of the poor than on any other branch of political economy; and yet the evil exists, as it has heretofore done in great force. On the score of extreme misery and want, it is evident that with respect to food, cloathing, and habitations, the inferior orders of society in Great Britain are better provided than at any former period, in consequence of the increased opulence of the country; but their immoral habits have experienced no favourable change, while the great increase of the population of the cities and towns, in a proportion infinitely beyond what existed during a considerable part of the last and the whole of the preceding century has contributed in no small degree to the corruption of morals. It has been already shewn, that the population of the cities and towns, instead of comprising (as had been conjectured) about one third of the nation, now approaches nearly to one half. From 1801 to 1811 the increase of houses in the towns in Great Britain average 12 per cent. and the inhabitants 15 per cent. In the country, the increase of Houses somewhat exceeds 11 per cent. and the inhabitants 13 per cent. (r)

In the year 1700 the number of inhabitants in the metropolis amounted to	674,350
In - - 1750 the increase for 50 years was only 1900 in 50 years	- 676,250
In - - 1801 the population had increased 223,750 in 51 years	- 900,000
In - - 1811 the population experienced } a further increase of }	150,000 in 10 years - 1,050,000

(r) A general View of the increase of Houses and Inhabitants in the cities and towns in Great Britain, compared with the increase of houses and inhabitants in the Country.

Increase of the number of Houses and Population in the cities and towns in Great Britain from 1801 to 1811			Increase of Houses and Inhabitants in the Country.		Difference.	
Divisions.	Increase of Houses.	Increase of Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.
England	14 per cent.	15 per cent.	13 per cent.	14 per cent.	1 per cent.	1 per cent.
Wales	13 per cent.	14 per cent.	9 per cent.	13 per cent.	4 per cent.	1 per cent.
Scotland	3 per cent.	15 per cent.	5 per cent.	11 per cent.	2 per cent. } short of }	4 per cent.
Great Britain	12 per cent.	15 per cent.	11 per cent.	13 per cent.	1 per cent.	2 per cent.

Thus it appears that for 10 years, from 1801 to 1811, there has been an average increase of houses built in towns beyond those built in the country equal to one per cent, while on an average the inhabitants have increased 2 per cent. in the towns beyond the augmentation of the country population. It varies however in different counties.

In Yorkshire the population is 2 per cent. in favour of the Country.				In Lancashire 2 per cent. in favor of the Towns.			
Cheshire	-	2 per cent.	-	Idem.	Westmoreland	-	4 per cent. - Idem.
Northumberland	-	6 per cent.	-	Idem.	Cumberland	-	3 per cent. - Idem.
Herts	-	9 per cent.	-	Idem.	Surrey	-	8 per cent. - Idem.
Essex	-	2 per cent.	-	Idem.	Sussex	-	16 per cent. - Idem.
					Kent	-	2 per cent. - Idem.

Berkshire . . . nearly equal,—the increase both in the towns and country being about 8 per cent.

From an inspection of the population of the different towns, as stated from page 29 to 43, it appears that there has been a considerable tendency to diminish the rural population of the country, and to increase that of the towns in general. Whether this is to be attributed to the reduction of small farms, or to any other cause, deserves serious consideration, with a view to raising the greatest quantity of food, which the land can produce by profitable cultivation to meet the progressively increasing population, so that the supply may keep pace with the demand. To expect, however, that the prices of corn should be reduced to the standard of former times, under the pressure of additional taxes, much higher rents and wages of labour now greatly augmented, would be unreasonable, while such reduction would be impolitic. The cultivators of the soil must have a fair profit. It ought even to be liberal in order to encourage the extension of agriculture, so necessary for the support of an increasing population, and to give employment to at least a very considerable proportion of additional consumers.

Agricultural occupations are certainly more favourable to good morals among the labouring people than mechanical and handicraft pursuits, which are generally prosecuted in great towns where vice and misery prevail in a much greater degree than in the country; and where, as has been already observed, the force of evil example tends in no small degree to the corruption of morals.

An extended population becomes only a blessing to a country when the people are industrious and virtuous. Where the wisest institutions are to be found, calculated to form establishments for profitable labour and for the improvement of moral habits, there will also be found the greatest portion of human happiness, producing at the same time through the medium of agriculture and other productive labour those resources which add to the power and opulence of states and empires. Upon this foundation the wealth and splendour of nations will be found exclusively to rest.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT of the NUMBER of HOUSES and INHABITANTS, in 1801 and 1811,

In every CITY, MARKET TOWN, and other TOWN, in GREAT BRITAIN,

Distinguishing, in the latter Period, the Number of Males and Females.

To which is added, the Number of Houses building in every Town throughout Great Britain;

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Counties:—	1801.		1811.					Counties:—	1801.		1811.				
	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.		Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.
BEDFORD.								CAMBRIDGE							
Amphill - - -	240	1,236	241	1,299	571	728	3	<i>continued.</i>							
Bedford - - -	800	3,948	958	4,605	2,057	2,548	22	March - - [folk.	555	2,514	679	3,098	1,515	1,583	2
Biggleswade - - -	301	1,650	351	1,785	868	917	2	Newmarket, see <i>Suf.</i>							
Dunstable - - -	245	1,296	300	1,616	690	926	3	Soham - - -	451	2,004	547	2,386	1,127	1,259	4
Leighton Buzzard - - -	387	1,963	412	2,114	986	1,128	5	Thorney - - -	246	1,598	250	1,675	835	840	1
Luton - - -	612	3,095	736	3,716	1,695	2,021	17	Wisbeach - - -	1,174	5,541	1,463	6,300	2,844	3,456	10
Potton - - -	241	1,103	270	1,154	556	598	—	Total - -	5,201	27,012	6,163	30,506	14,504	16,002	34
Shefford - - -	90	474	120	536	245	291	3	CHESTER.							
Toddington, <i>alias</i> } Tuddington - - }	365	1,143	259	1,182	585	597	—	Altrincham - -	343	1,692	412	2,032	973	1,059	—
Woburn - - -	283	1,563	298	1,506	645	861	1	* Chester - - -	3,194	15,052	3,457	16,140	7,007	9,133	15
Total - -	3,564	17,471	3,945	19,513	8,898	10,615	56	Congleton - -	855	3,861	974	4,616	2,023	2,593	5
BERKS.								Frodsham - -	189	1,250	127	756	375	381	—
Abingdon - - -	889	4,356	1,013	4,801	2,244	2,557	7	Halton - - -	137	628	152	894	463	431	—
Farringdon - - -	309	1,691	345	1,843	900	943	2	Knutsford - -	491	2,372	504	2,358	1,096	1,262	1
Hungerford - - -	398	1,987	173	943	370	573	—	Macclesfield -	1,527	8,743	2,777	12,299	5,629	6,670	23
Ilsey, East - - -	114	512	111	669	317	352	—	Malpas - - -	194	906	197	938	478	460	2
Lambourn - - -	200	964	211	1,002	449	553	1	Mottram - - -	220	948	263	1,446	710	736	9
Maidenhead - - -	160	949	164	792	377	415	3	Middlewich - -	268	1,190	300	1,232	551	681	—
Newbury - - -	965	4,275	1,024	4,898	2,285	2,613	4	Nantwich - - -	824	3,463	873	3,999	1,875	2,124	—
Oakingham, <i>alias</i> } Wokingham - - }	298	1,380	290	1,419	617	802	1	Northwich - -	345	1,338	322	1,382	650	732	2
Reading - - -	1,783	9,742	2,003	10,788	4,890	5,898	29	Park Gate, in- cluding Great Neston - - }	322	1,486	338	1,332	609	723	—
Thatcham - - -	424	1,995	424	2,104	1,031	1,073	—	Runcorn - - -	228	1,379	358	2,060	948	1,112	6
Wallingford - - -	371	1,744	380	1,901	868	1,033	—	Sandbach - - -	384	1,844	515	2,311	1,146	1,165	14
Wantage - - -	489	2,339	506	2,386	1,171	1,215	4	Stockport - -	2,698	14,830	3,324	17,545	7,977	9,568	2
Windsor - - -	848	4,793	1,046	6,155	2,749	3,406	5	Tarporley - -	138	674	166	701	317	384	—
Total - -	7,248	36,727	7,690	39,701	18,268	21,433	56	Total - -	12,357	61,656	15,059	72,041	32,827	39,214	79
BUCKINGHAM.								CORNWALL.							
Amersham, <i>alias</i> } Agmondesham - }	406	2,130	429	2,259	1,036	1,223	3	Austle St. - -	710	3,788	742	3,686	1,739	1,947	3
Aylesbury - - -	697	3,186	750	3,447	1,594	1,853	5	Bodmin - - -	278	1,951	265	2,050	1,008	1,042	8
Beaconsfield - - -	251	1,149	288	1,461	677	784	1	Bossiney - - -	88	412	93	471	226	245	1
Buckingham - - -	545	2,605	582	2,987	1,313	1,674	2	Callington - -	145	819	170	938	395	543	6
Chesham - - -	379	1,910	425	2,071	924	1,147	3	Camelford - -	183	794	188	892	365	527	2
Colnbrook - - -	374	2,066	448	2,530	1,252	1,278	4	Columb St. - -	321	1,816	419	2,070	988	1,082	3
Eton - - -	298	2,026	320	2,279	1,344	935	—	Falmouth - -	468	3,684	478	3,933	1,453	2,480	5
Ivinghoe - - -	78	452	274	1,361	651	710	—	Fowey - - -	239	1,155	239	1,319	554	765	2
Marlow, Great - -	643	3,256	478	2,799	1,391	1,408	1	Germains St. -	366	2,030	404	2,139	1,066	1,073	4
Newport Pagnell -	541	2,048	543	2,515	1,070	1,445	13	Grampound - -	85	525	97	601	261	340	2
Olney - - -	455	2,003	483	2,268	991	1,277	1	Helston - - -	513	2,248	329	2,297	935	1,362	4
Risborough - - -	320	1,554	324	1,644	774	870	—	Ives St. - - -	518	2,714	727	3,281	1,532	1,749	12
Stratford, Fenney -	82	469	96	481	219	262	—	Launceston - -	226	1,483	269	1,758	804	954	9
Stratford, Stony -	299	1,653	322	1,488	645	843	2	Leskeard - - -	323	1,860	374	1,975	884	1,091	3
Wendover - - -	275	1,397	283	1,481	697	784	—	Lestwithiel - -	145	743	138	825	384	441	7
Winslow - - -	220	1,101	223	1,222	624	598	—	Loe, East - -	126	467	142	608	254	354	—
Woburn - - -	304	1,401	330	1,604	718	886	—	Loe, West - -	82	376	93	433	191	242	1
Wycombe, High - -	458	2,349	487	2,490	1,148	1,342	7	Mawes, St. - -	18	91	18	105	41	64	—
Total - -	6,625	32,755	7,085	36,387	17,068	19,319	42	Merazion - - -	224	1,009	195	1,022	425	597	—
CAMBRIDGE.								Michael St. - -	32	154	35	178	87	91	—
Cambridge - - -	1,733	10,087	2,017	11,108	5,288	5,820	16	Newport - - -	36	173	47	241	109	132	—
Caxton - - -	44	336	63	317	163	154	—	Padstow - - -	201	1,332	236	1,498	661	837	1
* Ely, City - - -	815	3,775	950	4,249	2,034	2,215	1	Penryn - - -	305	2,324	360	2,713	1,095	1,618	2
Linton - - -	183	1,157	194	1,373	698	675	—	Penzance - - -	694	3,382	784	4,022	1,632	2,390	10
Continued								Redruth - - -	654	4,924	870	5,903	2,774	3,129	9
								Saltash - - -	160	1,150	195	1,478	705	773	3
								Stratton - - -	199	960	216	1,094	480	614	3
								Tregony - - -	134	937	181	923	410	513	2
								Truro - - -	369	2,358	400	2,482	1,124	1,358	—
								Total - -	7,642	45,659	8,704	50,935	22,582	28,353	102

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	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses building.		Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses building.
CUMBERLAND								DEVON							
Aldstone Moor -	317	3,626	466	5,079	2,593	2,486	—	<i>* Exeter</i> - - -	2,836	17,398	2,971	18,896	7,908	10,988	21
Bootle - - -	103	547	117	602	307	295	—	Hartland - - -	287	1,546	292	1,734	875	859	2
Brampton - - -	346	1,682	266	2,043	920	1,123	1	Hatherleigh - -	219	1,218	232	1,380	676	704	2
<i>* Carlisle</i> - - -	1,338	10,221	1,709	12,531	5,628	6,903	7	Holdsworth - - -	204	1,045	256	1,206	581	625	2
Cockermouth - -	423	2,865	628	2,964	1,342	1,622	4	Honiton - - -	557	2,377	589	2,735	1,280	1,455	20
Egremont - - -	326	1,515	335	1,556	730	826	1	Ilfracomb - - -	455	1,838	441	1,934	845	1,089	3
Holm Cultram, } or Holm Abbey }	84	371	126	600	302	298	—	Kingsbridge - -	155	1,117	141	1,242	528	714	1
Ireby - - -	73	358	87	399	199	200	1	Lifton - - -	145	843	141	1,006	495	511	5
Keswick - - -	298	1,350	352	1,683	788	895	4	Modbury - - -	311	1,813	316	1,890	863	1,027	—
Kirkcubald - - -	146	634	117	636	307	329	1	Moreton Hampstead	459	1,768	343	1,653	770	883	2
Longtown - - -	176	1,335	173	1,579	744	835	2	Newton Abbots, and }							
Maryport - - -	302	2,932	323	3,134	1,222	1,912	2	Newton Bushel † }	172	867	192	1,049	531	518	1
Penrith - - -	690	3,801	938	4,328	1,988	2,340	—	Oakhampton - -	269	1,430	227	1,440	656	784	—
Ravenglass - -	92	409	94	425	200	225	—	Ottery St. Mary's -	519	2,415	583	2,880	1,195	1,685	4
Whitehaven - -	1823	8,742	1,974	10,106	4,285	5,821	16	Plymouth § - - -	4,536	43,194	5,552	56,060	24,469	31,591	180
Wigton - - -	566	2,450	642	2,977	1,326	1,651	1	Plympton Earle - -	86	604	90	715	329	386	2
Workington - -	1181	5,716	1,068	5,807	2,250	3,557	5	Sidmouth - - -	258	1,252	344	1,688	702	986	5
Total - - -	8,284	48,554	9,415	56,449	25,131	31,318	45	South Molton - -	572	2,753	543	2,739	1,247	1,492	3
								Tavistock - - -	481	3,420	506	4,723	2,209	2,514	8
DERBY.								Teignmouth - - -	478	2,012	606	2,893	1,174	1,719	23
Alfreton - - -	442	2,301	553	3,396	1,792	1,604	15	Tiverton - - -	1,322	6,505	1,294	6,732	2,999	3,733	9
Ashbourn - - -	459	2,006	469	2,112	926	1,186	4	Topsham - - -	477	2,748	613	2,871	1,258	1,613	7
Bakewell - - -	299	1,412	296	1,485	686	799	14	Torrington - - -	374	2,044	400	2,151	924	1,227	14
Belper - - -	893	4,500	1,038	5,778	2,770	3,008	5	Totness - - -	302	2,503	326	2,725	1,133	1,592	1
Bolsover - - -	259	1,091	246	1,043	506	537	1	Total - - -	22,020	137,715	22,964	156,227	68,830	87,397	355
Buxton - - -	180	760	186	934	447	487	—								
Chapel-in-le-Prith	538	2,507	618	3,042	1,433	1,609	5	DORSET.							
Chesterfield - -	920	4,267	976	4,476	2,025	2,451	3	Abbotsbury - - -	173	788	170	812	373	439	—
Cromford - - -	208	1,115	232	1,259	593	666	7	Beaminster - - -	337	2,140	454	2,290	1,077	1,213	4
Derby - - -	2,170	10,832	2,786	13,043	5,978	7,065	34	Beer Regis - - -	201	936	215	953	429	524	2
Dronfield - - -	243	1,182	271	1,343	699	644	1	Blandford - - -	408	2,326	443	2,425	1,017	1,408	—
Matlock - - -	492	2,354	555	2,490	1,153	1,337	6	Bridport - - -	288	3,117	519	3,567	1,532	2,035	1
Melbourne - - -	357	1,861	402	2,003	996	1,007	—	Cerne Abbas - - -	165	847	156	795	368	427	1
Tideswell - - -	302	1,351	283	1,219	546	673	—	Corfe Castle - -	152	741	165	744	351	393	—
Winstan - - -	233	753	208	847	424	423	—	Cranbourne - - -	337	1,402	147	816	429	387	—
Wirksworth - -	679	2,978	770	3,474	1,640	1,834	7	Dorchester - - -	353	2,402	364	2,546	1,187	1,359	—
Total - - -	8,674	41,270	9,889	47,944	22,614	25,330	102	Evershot - - -	70	497	98	485	249	236	—
								Frampton - - -	47	295	74	331	162	169	—
DEVON.								Lyme Regis - - -	276	1,451	356	1,925	808	1,117	4
Ashburton - - -	379	3,080	366	3,053	1,322	1,731	2	Melcombe Regis - -	471	2,350	566	2,985	1,182	1,803	8
Axminster - - -	431	2,154	455	2,387	1,080	1,307	1	Poole - - -	1,059	4,761	1,057	4,816	2,143	2,673	2
Bampton - - -	302	1,364	282	1,422	690	732	2	Shaftsbury - - -	515	2,159	587	2,635	1,160	1,475	2
Barnstaple - - -	653	3,748	636	4,019	1,633	2,386	5	Stalbridge - - -	251	1,245	141	890	399	491	—
Beeralston, includ- }								Sherborne - - -	589	3,159	596	3,370	1,431	1,939	1
ing Beer-Terras }	216	1,110	149	1,504	849	655	9	Sturminster Newton	314	1,406	325	1,461	659	802	—
Bideford - - -	606	2,987	648	3,244	1,415	1,829	2	Swanage, alias }							
Bow - - -	162	677	157	727	329	398	2	Swansey }	300	1,382	299	1,483	700	783	2
Bradnich - - -	253	1,187	194	1,230	604	626	3	Wareham - - -	381	1,627	382	1,709	782	927	1
Brent - - -	163	1,032	272	1,321	603	718	—	Weymouth - - -	243	1,267	439	1,747	679	1,068	6
Chudleigh - - -	414	1,786	380	1,832	885	947	9	Wimborne Minster	673	3,039	694	3,156	1,513	1,643	7
Chumleigh - - -	296	1,333	309	1,340	638	702	—	Total - - -	7,603	39,337	8,247	41,941	18,630	23,311	41
Collumpton - -	661	3,138	618	2,917	1,323	1,594	5								
Colyton - - -	289	1,641	368	1,774	871	903	—	DURHAM.							
Crediton - - -	1,093	4,929	431	1,846	704	1,142	—	Bernard Castle - -	312	2,966	456	2,986	1,312	1,674	1
Comb-Martin - -	156	819	200	732	399	333	—	Bishop's Auckland	413	1,961	388	1,807	788	1,019	8
Dartmouth - - -	386	3,412	388	3,595	1,464	2,131	—	Bishop's Wearmouth	890	6,126	1,103	7,060	3,021	4,039	1
Dodbrook - - -	86	608	113	942	374	568	—	Continued							

† Including Newton Abbots, which is now united to Newton Bushel, both constituting one Town.

§ Including the Suburbs and Plymouth Dock,

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT of the NUMBER of HOUSES and INHABITANTS, in 1801 and 1811

In every CITY, MARKET TOWN, and other TOWN in GREAT BRITAIN,

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	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.		Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.
DURHAM <i>continued.</i>								GLOUCESTER <i>continued.</i>							
Chester-le-Street	259	1,662	256	1,726	800	926	2	Chipping Sodbury	222	1,090	236	1,235	561	674	6
Cornhill	140	668	177	725	355	370	—	Cirencester	885	4,130	926	4,540	2,030	2,510	4
Darlington	909	4,670	836	5,059	2,351	2,708	3	Colford	261	1,288	259	1,551	849	702	10
* Durham	1,054	7,530	956	6,763	2,997	5,766	5	Dean, Little	113	541	161	754	389	365	—
Gateshead	1,101	8,597	1,248	8,782	3,975	4,807	4	Dursley	470	2,379	513	2,580	1,151	1,429	5
Hartlepool	230	993	260	1,047	462	585	—	Fairford	273	1,326	302	1,444	688	756	—
Sedgfield	307	1,184	290	1,307	634	673	1	* Gloucester	1,368	7,579	1,529	8,280	3,726	4,554	15
Shields, South	1,263	8,108	926	9,001	4,127	4,874	2	Horsley	562	2,971	667	2,925	1,299	1,626	3
Staindrop	183	1,156	213	1,087	482	605	—	King-Stanley	322	1,434	358	1,722	796	926	2
Stanhope	196	1,239	165	1,375	669	706	—	Lechlade	193	917	202	993	469	524	2
Stockton-on-Tees	533	4,009	808	4,229	1,799	2,430	4	Lidney	139	783	138	820	433	387	4
Sunderland	1,379	12,412	1,684	12,289	5,007	7,282	—	Marshfield	265	1,264	275	1,415	672	743	5
Tweedmouth	412	3,458	711	3,917	1,848	2,069	7	Minching Hampton	710	3,419	810	3,246	1,523	1,723	2
Wearmouth, Monk	603	5,342	671	5,355	2,272	3,083	2	Mitchell-Dean	125	563	121	535	270	265	—
Wolsingham	398	1,834	398	1,983	912	1,071	1	Morton in the Marsh	171	829	199	928	457	471	2
Total ..	10,582	73,915	11,146	76,498	33,811	42,687	41	Newent	474	2,354	508	2,538	1,241	1,297	3
								Newnham	145	821	155	952	473	479	—
ESSEX.								Northleach	110	664	142	647	308	339	—
Barking	328	1,585	402	2,421	1,273	1,148	2	Painswick	643	3,150	674	3,201	1,391	1,810	—
Billericay	147	1,128	157	1,289	658	631	2	Stow-on-the-Wold	264	1,139	260	1,188	564	624	1
Bocking	623	2,680	555	2,544	1,134	1,410	—	Stroud	1,048	5,422	1,174	5,321	2,456	2,865	11
Bradfield	87	582	130	613	287	326	1	Tetbury	533	2,500	520	2,533	1,202	1,331	2
Brentwood	182	1,007	229	1,238	575	663	2	Tewksbury	887	4,199	992	4,820	2,201	2,619	11
Braintree	454	2,821	518	2,298	1,082	1,216	—	Thornbury	176	856	214	1,083	445	638	2
Burnham	210	1,054	201	1,056	526	530	—	Wickwar	161	764	160	805	390	415	—
Chelmsford	653	3,755	867	4,649	2,046	2,603	15	Winchcomb	301	1,256	296	1,256	583	673	3
Chipping Ongar	111	595	120	678	339	339	—	Wotton-under-Edge	284	1,587	307	1,527	667	860	—
Coggeshall	593	2,409	526	2,471	1,165	1,306	2	Total ...	23,786	127,102	27,415	149,168	66,380	82,788	555
Colchester	1,997	11,520	2,168	12,544	5,400	7,144	24								
Dedham	303	1,537	270	1,432	697	735	1	HEREFORD.							
Dunmow	440	2,100	446	2,279	1,064	1,215	1	Bromyard	243	983	244	1,101	515	586	7
Epping	271	1,413	290	1,473	756	717	—	* Hereford	1,460	6,828	1,668	7,306	3,145	4,161	23
Gray's Thurrock	83	677	213	1,055	553	502	—	Kington	311	1,424	341	1,617	758	859	9
Halsted	784	3,380	744	3,279	1,486	1,793	1	Ledbury	618	3,058	625	3,136	1,443	1,693	4
Harlow	265	1,514	261	1,695	883	812	1	Leominster	736	3,019	764	3,238	1,468	1,770	10
Harwich	493	2,761	578	3,732	1,519	2,213	1	Pembroke	304	1,086	288	1,135	558	577	—
Horndon	66	359	64	378	197	181	—	Ross	553	2,347	556	2,261	1,052	1,209	2
Leigh	110	570	109	702	324	378	—	Weobley	160	608	159	626	312	314	—
Manningtree	129	1,016	217	1,075	486	589	—	Total ..	4,385	19,353	4,645	20,420	9,251	11,169	55
Maldon	454	2,358	515	2,679	1,243	1,436	1								
Rochford	183	1,228	186	1,214	608	606	4	HERTFORD :							
Romford	529	3,179	618	3,244	1,547	1,697	2	Baldock	231	1,283	259	1,438	689	749	1
Saffron Walden	682	3,181	676	3,403	1,617	1,786	10	Barkway	147	699	99	686	326	360	—
Thaxted	365	1,894	388	1,733	861	872	2	Barnet, East	61	353	67	406	202	204	2
Waltham Abbey	326	1,837	421	2,287	1,139	1,148	1	Berkhampstead	338	1,690	396	1,963	918	1,045	3
Walthamstow	528	3,006	558	3,777	1,771	2,006	4	Bishop's Stortford	456	2,305	486	2,630	1,255	1,575	13
Witham	401	2,186	466	2,352	1,153	1,199	—	Buntingford	146	779	167	794	383	411	2
Total ..	11,797	63,392	12,893	69,590	32,389	37,201	77	Hatfield	482	2,442	508	2,677	1,312	1,365	1
GLOUCESTER.								Hemel Hempstead	497	2,722	648	3,240	1,567	1,673	4
Berkeley	99	638	128	616	296	320	2	Hertford	542	3,360	598	3,900	2,038	1,862	6
Bisley	922	4,227	1,093	4,757	2,135	2,622	8	Hitchin	674	3,161	789	3,608	1,560	2,048	—
* Bristol, includ- ing the Suburbs	10,896	63,645	12,365	76,433	32,842	43,591	321	Hoddesdon	227	1,227	232	1,249	570	679	3
Campden	54	221	54	198	93	105	4	Rickmansworth	503	2,975	581	3,230	1,559	1,671	8
Cheltenham	710	3,076	1,677	8,325	3,780	4,545	127	Royston	206	975	283	1,309	618	691	1
Continued								Continued							

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT of the NUMBER of HOUSES and INHABITANTS, in 1801 and 1811,

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HERTFORD <i>continued.</i>									KENT <i>continued.</i>								
St. Albans - - -		527	3,038	621	3,653	1,635	2,018	—	Sheerness - - -		675	4,139	840	5,318	2,596	2,722	20
Standon - - -		254	1,866	253	1,889	988	901	1	Sittingbourn - - -		200	1,347	238	1,362	633	729	1
Stevenage - - -		267	1,254	306	1,302	556	746	2	Smarden - - -		161	831	168	890	463	427	1
Tring - - -		328	1,621	351	1,847	818	1,029	1	Tenterden - - -		371	2,370	456	2,786	1,301	1,485	3
Waltham Cross -		202	1,096	212	1,152	480	672	1	Tunbridge - - -		771	4,371	942	5,932	2,852	3,080	16
Ware - - -		580	2,950	684	3,369	1,618	1,751	3	Tunbridge Wells -		501	3,013	653	4,349	2,036	2,313	9
Watford - - -		691	3,530	519	2,603	1,216	1,387	9	Westerham - - -		271	1,344	271	1,437	716	721	1
Total - -		7,366	39,306	8,059	42,945	20,308	22,637	62	Woolwich - - -		1,362	9,826	2,446	17,054	8,082	8,972	41
HUNTINGDON.									Wrotham - - -		111	755	107	613	296	317	—
Godmanchester -		347	1,573	408	1,779	842	937	—	Wye - - -		218	1,200	223	1,322	642	680	1
Huntingdon - - -		356	2,035	471	2,397	1,085	1,312	4	Total - -		32,160	177,801	38,072	217,646	103,013	114,633	495
Kimbolton - - -		252	1,266	262	1,400	659	741	—	LANCASTER.								
Ramsey - - -		353	1,894	484	2,350	1,197	1,193	—	Ashton-under-Line		3,018	15,632	3,127	19,052	9,146	9,906	—
St. Ives - - -		478	2,099	489	2,426	1,202	1,224	—	Blackburn - - -		2,352	11,980	3,062	15,083	6,953	8,130	18
St. Neots - - -		370	1,752	408	1,988	919	1,069	2	Bolton - - -		3,476	17,416	4,595	24,149	11,354	12,795	4
Stilton - - -		111	509	107	663	327	336	—	Broughton-in-Furnace		223	1,105	211	966	466	500	—
Yaxley - - -		215	986	171	1,391	575	816	—	Bury - - -		1,384	7,072	1,629	8,762	4,219	4,543	17
Total - -		2,482	12,114	2,800	14,434	6,806	7,628	6	Burnley - - -		678	3,305	828	4,368	2,129	2,239	—
KENT.									Cartmel - - -		140	882	157	991	463	528	—
Appledore - - -		55	384	62	407	212	195	—	Chorley - - -		865	4,516	964	5,182	2,426	2,756	3
Ashford - - -		411	2,151	422	2,532	1,137	1,395	1	Clitheroe - - -		309	1,368	308	1,767	826	941	2
Bexley - - -		267	1,441	288	1,774	854	920	—	Colne - - -		782	3,626	994	5,336	2,531	2,805	4
Bromley - - -		424	2,700	479	2,965	1,431	1,534	11	Dalton - - -		241	1,125	159	643	290	353	—
* Canterbury - - -		1,799	9,000	2,199	10,200	4,605	5,595	10	Eccleston - - -		246	1,362	292	1,584	803	781	—
Charing - - -		125	851	155	912	462	450	1	Garstang - - -		64	731	180	790	367	423	—
Chatham - - -		1,729	10,505	2,221	12,652	5,922	6,730	25	Hasliuden - - -		844	4,040	1,005	5,127	2,518	2,609	8
Cranbrook - - -		429	2,561	522	2,994	1,454	1,540	2	Hawkshead - - -		160	634	154	676	337	339	—
Crayford - - -		191	1,210	246	1,553	769	784	—	Hornby - - -		87	414	86	420	212	208	—
Dartford - - -		468	2,406	531	3,177	1,599	1,578	4	Kirkham - - -		352	1,561	431	2,214	1,039	1,175	3
Deal - - -		917	5,420	1,350	7,351	3,382	3,969	17	Lancaster - - -		1,611	9,030	1,731	9,247	4,237	5,010	1
Deptford - - -		3,119	17,348	3,522	19,833	9,526	10,307	97	Liverpool - - -		11,784	77,653	16,007	94,376	41,296	53,080	155
Dover - - -		3,570	14,845	3,973	19,128	8,663	10,465	35	Leigh - - -		277	1,429	353	1,960	927	1,033	2
Elbam - - -		167	942	177	992	522	470	—	Manchester - - -		12,826	81,020	17,245	98,573	44,332	54,241	74
Eltham - - -		275	1,627	294	1,813	880	933	1	Middleton - - -		624	3,265	819	4,422	2,045	2,377	12
Folkestone - - -		782	3,257	784	3,697	1,673	2,024	—	Newton - - -		172	1,455	269	1,589	759	830	—
Feversham - - -		570	3,364	638	3,655	1,756	1,899	1	Ormskirk - - -		614	2,554	676	3,064	1,441	1,623	2
Gravesend - - -		412	2,483	527	3,119	1,505	1,614	9	Poulton - - -		197	769	211	926	427	499	—
Greenwich - - -		2,121	14,339	2,381	16,947	8,723	8,224	47	Prescot - - -		736	3,465	822	3,678	1,747	1,931	4
Goudhurst - - -		287	1,782	277	2,082	1,021	1,061	1	Preston - - -		2,231	11,887	3,612	17,065	7,749	9,316	12
Hythe - - -		229	1,446	277	2,318	995	1,323	2	Rainford - - -		233	1,185	269	1,315	643	672	—
Lenham - - -		232	1,434	269	1,509	767	742	3	Rochdale - - -		959	5,560	2,027	10,968	5,394	5,574	3
Lewisham - - -		722	4,007	1,165	6,625	2,923	3,702	33	Ulverston - - -		629	2,937	725	3,378	1,530	1,848	3
Lydd - - -		204	1,303	305	1,504	718	786	—	Warrington - - -		2,296	10,567	2,609	11,738	5,325	6,413	30
Maidstone - - -		1,346	8,027	1,745	9,443	4,412	5,031	5	Wigan - - -		2,236	10,989	2,652	14,060	6,442	7,618	34
Malling - - -		192	1,093	233	1,154	526	628	—	Worsley - - -		853	5,062	1,008	6,151	2,916	3,235	4
Margate - - -		1,115	4,766	1,280	6,126	2,782	2,344	19	Total - -		53,499	305,596	69,217	379,620	173,289	206,331	395
Milton - - -		322	2,056	401	2,470	1,159	1,311	8	LEICESTER.								
Minster in Shepey		675	4,139	840	5,318	2,596	2,722	20	Ashby-de-la-Zouch		621	2,674	647	3,141	1,525	1,616	48
North-Fleet - - -		291	1,910	372	2,031	1,014	1,017	—	Barrow-upon-Soar		231	1,090	263	1,303	681	622	—
Queenborough - -		132	545	163	605	310	425	4	Billesdon - - -		120	580	126	534	264	270	1
Ramsgate - - -		726	3,110	898	4,221	1,845	2,376	21	Bosworth Market -		120	791	172	865	430	435	—
* Rochester - - -		1,150	6,817	1,551	9,070	4,292	4,778	19	Hallaton - - -		149	548	151	598	278	320	—
Romney, New - - -		122	755	157	841	387	454	2	Hinckley - - -		930	5,070	1,123	6,058	2,872	3,186	3
St. Mary Cray - -		129	672	139	708	364	344	—	Leicester - - -		3,290	15,593	4,683	23,146	10,801	12,345	73
Sandwich - - -		1,398	6,506	530	2,735	1,272	1,463	1	Loughborough - -		981	4,546	1,140	5,400	2,612	2,788	8
Seven Oaks - - -		416	1,403	355	1,922	868	1,054	3	Lutterworth - - -		277	1,652	425	1,845	861	984	—

Continued

Continued

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LEICESTER, continued.								MIDDLESEX, continued.							
Market Harborough	330	1,716	342	1,704	788	916	1	Honnslow	354	2,042	377	2,304	1,064	1,240	2
Melton Mowbray	348	1,766	422	2,145	994	1,151	—	Isleworth	768	4,346	791	4,661	2,142	2,519	3
Mount Sorrel	231	1,233	281	1,502	749	753	—	London City, †							
Waltham	99	440	93	512	238	274	—	exclusive of							
Total	7,727	37,699	9,868	48,753	23,092	25,660	134	Westminster, Southwark, and the Out-Parishes	18,338	129,528	17,871	120,909	59,243	61,666	61
LINCOLN.								London Suburbs } in Middlesex	64,623	436,275	79,754	558,156	247,753	310,403	2,436
Alford	231	1,040	265	1,169	533	636	2	Staines	318	1,750	354	2,042	964	1,078	1
Barton	412	1,709	486	2,204	1,014	1,190	1	Stoke Newington	221	1,462	361	2,149	890	1,259	3
Binbrook	79	484	128	655	364	291	—	Twickenham	458	3,138	674	3,757	1,637	2,120	11
Bolingbroke	72	283	75	361	179	182	—	Uxbridge	395	2,111	449	2,411	1,139	1,272	1
Boston	1,252	5,926	1,837	8,180	3,805	4,375	25	* Westminster	18,219	153,272	18,102	162,085	74,538	87,547	67
Bourn	282	1,474	309	1,591	779	812	—	Total	110,460	772,206	126,269	904,358	410,662	493,696	2,673
Burgh	140	716	163	709	336	373	—	MONMOUTH.							
Burton upon-Strather	89	482	110	526	252	274	—	Abergavenny	546	2,573	575	2,815	1,277	1,538	3
Caistor	202	861	192	1,051	487	564	—	Caerleon	148	667	185	595	262	333	4
Corby	80	436	79	464	218	246	—	Chepstow	348	2,080	429	2,581	1,158	1,423	9
Crowland	299	1,425	369	1,713	848	865	1	Monmouth	677	3,345	675	3,503	1,630	1,873	4
Crowle	285	1,343	322	1,424	684	740	2	Newport	202	1,135	445	2,346	1,126	1,220	8
Donnington	221	1,321	323	1,528	751	777	2	Pontypool	175	736	233	1,211	605	606	3
Epworth	281	1,434	280	1,502	676	826	—	Usk	158	734	164	844	376	468	—
Folkingham	100	531	106	659	288	371	—	Total	2,254	11,270	2,706	13,895	6,434	7,461	31
Gainsborough	1,088	4,506	1,227	5,172	2,446	2,726	4	NORFOLK.							
Glandford Bridge	299	1,327	315	1,361	638	723	—	Attleborough	216	1,333	216	1,413	704	709	2
alias Brigg	651	3,303	683	3,646	1,677	1,969	—	Aylsham	233	1,667	362	1,760	821	939	—
Grantham	265	1,524	668	2,747	1,289	1,458	—	Buckenham	125	664	133	656	315	341	—
Great Grimsby	582	2,683	617	2,962	1,521	1,441	2	Burnham Westgate	169	743	171	825	414	411	—
Holbeach	424	2,015	571	2,622	1,197	1,425	7	Clay	147	547	149	595	259	336	—
Horncastle	243	1,092	263	1,152	551	601	1	Cromer	141	676	178	848	386	462	8
Kirton in Lindsey	1,574	7,398	1,839	8,861	4,177	4,684	29	Dereham, East	524	2,505	554	2,888	1,276	1,612	13
* Lincoln	950	4,236	1,035	4,728	2,247	2,481	—	Diss	327	2,246	352	2,590	1,181	1,409	2
Louth	172	803	172	899	426	473	4	Downham	289	1,512	283	1,771	856	915	2
Market Deeping	140	774	162	964	450	514	2	Fakenham	242	1,236	258	1,382	692	760	3
Market Raisin	159	706	156	800	384	416	—	Foulsham	103	605	106	682	327	355	1
Saltfleet	333	1,483	383	1,781	837	944	2	Harleston	105	437	123	550	265	285	1
Sleaford	737	3,296	944	4,330	2,057	2,263	7	Harling, East	93	674	96	754	383	371	2
Spalding	227	932	230	963	456	507	—	Hingham	179	1,203	252	1,263	619	644	—
Spilsby	701	4,022	820	4,582	2,003	2,579	12	Holt	215	1,004	218	1,037	477	560	—
Stanford	299	1,544	273	1,561	768	793	—	Lynn Regis	2,012	10,096	2,318	10,259	4,412	5,847	5
Swineshead	102	496	105	506	240	266	—	Loddon	166	799	128	937	457	480	—
Tattershall	167	927	229	1,165	570	595	—	Methwold	134	865	180	942	476	466	1
Wainfleet	146	678	175	709	348	361	—	* Norwich	8,763	36,832	8,521	37,256	15,664	21,592	29
Winteringham	76	410	103	509	251	258	—	Reepham	42	284	65	299	156	143	—
Wragby								Seething	66	366	58	338	167	171	—
Total	13,360	63,620	16,014	75,756	35,757	39,999	103	Snethisham	162	881	191	880	416	464	—
MIDDLESEX.								Swaffham	452	2,220	485	2,350	1,099	1,251	5
Brentford	287	1,443	304	1,733	809	924	—	Thetford	492	2,246	528	2,450	1,148	1,302	2
Chipping Barnet	215	1,258	243	1,513	679	834	—	Walsham, North	452	1,959	447	2,035	973	1,062	1
Ealing, including Old Brentford	880	5,035	943	5,361	2,509	2,852	3	Walsingham	263	1,293	307	1,008	451	557	—
Edmonton	948	5,093	1,205	6,824	3,309	3,515	15	Watton	151	693	171	794	365	429	6
Enfield	993	5,881	1,194	6,636	3,234	3,402	13	Wells	569	2,316	603	2,683	1,256	1,427	4
Fulham	749	4,428	929	5,903	2,714	3,189	15	Worstead	148	650	111	619	292	327	1
Hammersmith	920	5,600	1,010	7,393	3,262	4,131	10	Wymondham	97	494	115	569	269	300	—
Hampstead	738	4,343	887	5,483	2,306	3,177	17	Yarmouth, Great	3,159	14,845	3,576	17,977	7,943	10,034	18
Harrow	378	2,485	303	1,689	903	786	3	Total	20,236	93,891	21,360	100,410	44,449	55,961	106
Hornsey	458	2,716	518	3,349	1,567	1,782	12								

† The City of London, within and without the Walls, according to the Returns under the Population Acts of 1801 and 1811. For the Metropolis in its greatest Extent, see Page 45.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT of the NUMBER of HOUSES and INHABITANTS, in 1801 and 1811.

In every CITY, MARKET TOWN, and other TOWN, in GREAT BRITAIN,

Distinguishing, in the latter Period, the Number of Males and Females.

To which is added, the Number of Houses building in every Town throughout Great Britain;

Also a List of all the Towns, arranged progressively, which contain more than 10,000 Inhabitants.

From the Authentic Returns presented to Parliament.

ENGLAND.

*Those printed in *Italics* are Boroughs, which return Members to Parliament; and those with this additional Mark * are Cities.

Counties :—	1801		1811.					Counties :—	1801.		1811.					Counties :—							
	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.		Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.								
NORTHAMPTON								OXFORD, <i>continued.</i>															
Brackley - - -	283	1,495	293	1,580	674	906	3	Chipping Norton - - -	347	1,812	382	1,975	968	1,007	1								
Cliffe - - -	207	876	205	966	501	465	—	Deddington - - -	232	1,172	256	1,296	635	661	2								
Daventry - - -	528	2,582	550	2,758	1,297	1,461	7	Henley-upon- } Thames }	635	2,948	537	3,117	1,347	1,770	1								
Higham-Ferrers - - -	132	726	144	823	394	429	1	* Oxford - - -	1,909	11,694	2,034	12,931	6,600	6,331	30								
Kettering - - -	690	3,011	732	3,242	1,491	1,751	1	Tetsworth - - -	94	396	93	426	206	220	—								
Kingscliff - - -	207	876	205	966	501	465	—	Thame - - -	445	2,293	459	2,328	1,188	1,140	1								
Northampton - - -	1,371	7,020	1,600	8,427	3,974	4,453	23	Watlington - - -	266	1,276	237	1,150	527	623	2								
Oundle - - -	380	1,965	377	1,833	821	1,012	3	Witney - - -	566	2,584	543	2,722	1,260	1,462	—								
* Peterborough - - -	734	3,449	829	3,674	1,636	2,038	9	Woodstock - - -	214	1,322	221	1,419	660	759	—								
Rockingham - - -	50	213	49	230	99	131	—	Total - -	6,483	34,158	6,617	36,413	17,687	18,726	44								
Rothwell - - -	345	1,409	330	1,451	665	786	—	RUTLAND.															
Thrapston - - -	123	675	133	708	311	397	—	Oakham - - -	225	1,056	223	1,111	513	598	—								
Towcester - - -	429	2,030	479	2,245	1,022	1,223	6	Uppingham - - -	277	1,393	292	1,484	719	765	—								
Weldon - - -	164	855	166	815	389	426	—	Total - -	502	2,449	515	2,595	1,232	1,363	—								
Welford - - -	201	931	195	1,024	550	494	—	SALOP.															
Wellingborough - - -	671	3,325	746	3,999	1,772	2,227	3	Bishop's Castle - - -	241	1,076	295	1,367	651	716	—								
Total - -	6,515	31,438	7,033	34,741	16,077	18,664	56	Bridgenorth - - -	945	4,408	1,022	4,386	2,006	2,380	5								
NORTHUMBER-								OXFORD,															
LAND.								<i>continued.</i>															
Alnwick - - -	739	4,719	840	5,426	2,449	2,977	5	Broseley - - -	1,031	4,832	1,177	4,850	2,448	2,402	4								
Belford - - -	161	902	162	931	433	498	—	Church Stretton - - -	205	924	208	944	458	486	4								
Bellingham - - -	70	337	84	346	162	184	—	Cleobury - - -	326	1,368	337	1,582	748	834	—								
Berwick-upon-Tweed - - -	965	7,187	955	7,746	3,325	4,421	2	Clun - - -	266	1,390	114	734	345	389	—								
Blyth - - -	183	1,170	204	1,522	718	804	1	Drayton - - -	612	3,162	618	3,370	1,549	1,821	5								
Haltwhistle - - -	104	453	144	751	368	383	1	Ellesmere - - -	1,056	3,335	1,073	5,639	2,715	2,924	2								
Hartley - - -	345	1,639	451	1,872	866	1,006	—	Hales Owen - - -	1,186	5,930	1,296	6,888	3,451	3,437	11								
Hexham - - -	487	3,427	487	3,518	1,472	2,046	1	Ludlow - - -	804	3,897	866	4,150	1,810	2,340	11								
Morpeth - - -	427	2,951	483	3,244	1,470	1,774	8	Madeley Market - - -	943	4,758	1,085	5,076	2,502	2,574	6								
Newcastle-upon-Tyne - - -	3,296	28,365	3,269	27,587	11,916	15,671	10	Newport - - -	323	2,307	478	2,114	946	1,168	—								
Rothbury - - -	131	668	133	750	538	412	—	Oswestry - - -	622	2,672	781	3,479	1,621	1,858	6								
Shields, North - - -	894	7,280	797	7,699	3,390	4,309	7	Shifnal - - -	257	1,141	804	4,061	2,040	2,021	4								
Tynemouth - - -	804	3,856	906	5,834	2,157	3,677	24	Shrewsbury - - -	2,861	14,739	3,024	16,606	7,426	9,180	25								
Warkworth - - -	95	614	108	568	260	308	—	Wenlock, Much - - -	514	1,981	494	2,079	1,030	1,049	11								
Wooler - - -	285	1,679	284	1,704	814	890	—	Wellington - - -	1,480	7,531	1,718	8,213	4,098	4,115	6								
Total - -	8,989	65,247	9,307	69,498	30,138	39,360	59	Wem - - -	194	1,029	294	1,395	640	755	3								
NOTTINGHAM.								Whitechurch - - -	921	4,515	550	2,589	1,210	1,379	2								
Bingham - - -	220	1,082	275	1,326	663	663	2	Total - -	14,767	70,995	16,234	79,522	37,694	41,828	105								
Blyth - - -	157	589	170	670	302	368	4	SOMERSET.															
Mansfield - - -	1,245	5,988	1,453	6,816	3,148	3,668	5	Axbridge - - -	162	819	162	835	381	454	2								
Newark - - -	1,390	6,730	1,492	7,236	3,319	3,917	12	* Bath - - -	4,463	32,200	4,146	31,496	12,373	19,123	133								
Nottingham - - -	5,077	28,861	6,801	34,253	15,495	18,758	41	Bridgewater - - -	493	3,634	891	4,911	2,241	2,670	25								
Ollerton - - -	95	439	97	462	226	236	—	Bruton - - -	333	1,631	362	1,536	658	878	2								
Retford, East - - -	428	1,948	469	2,030	909	1,121	2	Castle Cary - - -	240	1,281	285	1,406	650	756	—								
Southwell - - -	494	2,305	557	2,674	1,265	1,409	4	Chard - - -	248	1,212	190	1,244	572	672	1								
Tuxford - - -	110	785	195	841	413	428	2	Cheddar - - -	222	1,190	291	1,276	578	698	2								
Worksop - - -	658	3,263	756	3,702	1,763	1,939	3	Crewkerne - - -	492	2,576	603	3,021	1,346	1,675	6								
Total - -	9,874	51,990	12,265	60,010	27,503	32,507	75	Crowcombe - - -	93	575	105	611	288	323	1								
OXFORD.								Dulverton - - -	199	1,049	207	1,035	503	532	—								
Brampton - - -	144	668	170	821	401	420	—	Dunster - - -	219	772	173	868	406	462	1								
Banbury - - -	525	2,755	595	2,841	1,331	1,510	—	Frome - - -	1,709	8,748	1,821	9,493	4,179	5,314	14								
Bensington, alias } Beeson	193	811	200	825	411	411	1	Glastonbury - - -	418	2,035	476	2,337	1,067	1,270	10								
Bicester - - -	414	1,946	428	2,146	998	1,148	3	Huntspill - - -	189	1,012	190	1,119	544	575	2								
Burford - - -	304	1,516	245	1,342	634	708	—	Ilchester - - -	138	817	87	610	288	322	—								
Charlbury - - -	195	965	217	1,074	518	556	3	Ilminster - - -	366	2,045	374	2,160	1,022	1,138	3								
Continued								Keynsham - - -	286	1,591	325	1,743	825	923	3								
								Continued															

TABLE, No. 1, continued.

35

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT of the NUMBER of HOUSES and INHABITANTS, in 1801 and 1811,

In every CITY, MARKET TOWN, and other TOWN, in GREAT BRITAIN,

Distinguishing, in the latter Period, the Number of Males and Females.

To which is added, the Number of Houses building in every Town throughout Great Britain;

Also a List of all the Towns, arranged progressively, which contain more than 10,000 Inhabitants.

From the Authentic Returns presented to Parliament.

ENGLAND.

Those printed in *Italics* are Boroughs, which return Members to Parliament; and those with this additional Mark * are Cities.

Counties:—	1801.		1811.					Counties:—	1801.		1811.				
	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.		Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.
SOMERSET <i>continued.</i>								STAFFORD, <i>continued.</i>							
Langport - - -	126	754	115	861	419	442	1	Brewood - - -	581	2,867	217	991	475	516	1
Martock - - -	376	2,102	379	2,356	1,106	1,250	1	Burslem - - -	1,228	6,578	1,707	8,625	4,119	4,506	6
Milborne Port - -	221	953	230	1,000	474	526	—	Burton-upon-Trent	738	3,679	815	3,979	1,844	2,135	1
Milverton - - -	316	1,667	342	1,637	725	912	1	Cheadle - - -	577	2,750	640	3,191	1,535	1,656	2
Minhead - - -	339	1,168	278	1,037	443	594	—	Eccleshall - - -	216	951	223	1,016	466	550	—
Nether Stowey - -	123	586	119	620	299	321	—	Leek - - -	780	3,489	835	3,703	1,664	2,039	6
Pewford - - -	67	326	66	296	141	155	2	*Litchfield - - -	916	4,512	1,028	5,022	2,237	2,785	5
Pettherton, South	351	1,674	348	1,867	865	1,002	4	Longnor - - -	98	391	102	467	250	237	—
Phillips Norton -	121	557	122	593	271	322	3	Newcastle-under-Line	1,058	4,604	1,319	6,175	2,940	3,235	25
Porlock - - -	127	600	140	633	283	350	—	Penkridge - - -	238	1,123	203	923	438	485	1
Shepton Mallet -	1,154	5,104	1,112	4,638	1,868	2,770	17	Rudgley - - -	428	2,030	459	2,213	1,089	1,124	14
Somerton - - -	252	1,145	332	1,478	694	784	6	Stafford - - -	723	3,898	868	4,868	2,401	2,467	17
Taunton - - -	1,194	5,794	1,343	6,997	3,040	3,957	28	Stone - - -	390	2,035	460	2,314	1,117	1,197	3
Watchet - - -	169	846	171	1,313	678	635	—	Tamworth† - - -	563	2,786	603	2,991	1,407	1,584	—
Wellington - - -	767	4,033	741	3,874	1,687	2,187	14	Tutbury - - -	195	844	240	1,235	607	628	2
*Wells - - -	855	5,525	920	5,156	2,295	2,861	10	Uttoxeter - - -	622	2,779	632	3,155	1,376	1,779	5
Wincanton - - -	381	1,772	378	1,850	822	1,028	2	Walsall - - -	1,178	5,177	1,150	5,541	2,686	2,855	—
Wiveliscombe - -	476	2,571	562	2,550	1,168	1,382	5	Wednesbury - - -	803	4,160	999	5,372	2,806	2,566	5
Wrington - - -	176	788	183	1,109	555	554	—	Wolverhampton -	2,534	12,565	2,889	14,836	7,355	7,481	47
Yeovil - - -	777	2,774	455	3,118	1,419	1,699	4	Total -	15,510	75,620	17,582	88,043	42,508	45,535	157
Total -	18,638	103,926	19,024	108,689	47,173	61,516	303								
SOUTHAMPTON								SUFFOLK.							
Alresford - - -	196	1,132	207	1,044	470	574	1	Aldborough, or }							
Alton - - -	388	2,026	406	2,316	1,092	1,224	2	Aldeburgh }	208	804	226	1,066	457	609	1
Andover - - -	679	3,304	637	3,295	1,524	1,771	7	Beccles - - -	621	2,788	661	2,979	1,317	1,662	—
Basingstoke - - -	512	2,589	534	2,656	1,253	1,403	5	Bildeston - - -	121	744	115	762	361	401	2
Bishops' Waltham	191	1,773	381	1,830	903	927	—	Botesdale - - -	65	565	72	575	285	290	—
Brading - - -	253	1,529	330	1,218	567	651	2	Boxford - - -	99	636	138	702	378	324	5
Christchurch - - -	295	1,410	313	1,552	682	871	4	Brandon - - -	203	1,148	213	1,360	646	714	2
Cowes - - -	482	2,771	624	3,325	1,598	1,727	3	Bungay - - -	492	2,349	549	2,828	1,270	1,558	—
Fareham - - -	555	3,030	601	3,325	1,592	1,733	20	Bury St. Edmunds	1,397	7,655	1,504	7,986	3,539	4,447	—
Fordingbridge - -	461	2,335	478	2,259	1,084	1,175	4	Clare - - -	253	1,088	258	1,170	591	579	—
Gosport - - -	1,371	7,531	1,470	7,788	3,483	4,305	6	Debenham - - -	392	1,215	168	1,224	575	649	—
Hambleton - - -	262	1,358	269	1,495	747	748	2	Dunwich - - -	44	184	44	208	102	106	—
Havant - - -	345	1,670	362	1,824	851	973	1	Eye - - -	303	1,734	326	1,893	906	987	—
Hayling Isle - -	102	578	113	620	330	290	1	Framlingham - -	390	1,854	414	1,965	940	1,025	1
Kingsclere - - -	394	1,939	405	1,863	928	935	1	Hadleigh - - -	456	2,332	514	2,592	1,181	1,411	—
Lymington - - -	492	2,378	541	2,641	1,075	1,566	—	Halesworth - - -	262	1,676	348	1,810	841	969	1
Newport - - -	575	3,585	691	3,835	1,755	2,100	3	Haverhill - - -	152	1,104	248	1,216	575	641	4
Newton - - -	43	221	48	237	109	128	—	Ipswich - - -	2,221	11,277	2,832	13,670	6,064	7,606	21
Odiham - - -	186	1,058	201	1,104	539	565	1	Ixworth - - -	137	827	121	846	394	452	—
Petersfield - - -	208	1,159	212	1,280	588	692	—	Lavenham - - -	339	1,776	310	1,711	778	933	—
Portsmouth, in- cluding Portsea }	5,340	32,166	6,960	40,567	18,346	22,221	154	Lowestoft - - -	512	2,332	641	3,189	1,526	1,663	5
Ride - - -	205	1,223	256	1,601	843	758	7	Melford - - -	469	2,204	426	2,068	951	1,117	1
Ringwood - - -	663	3,222	678	3,269	1,554	1,715	—	Mendlesham - -	180	1,051	218	1,093	504	589	1
Romsey - - -	872	4,274	931	4,297	1,967	2,330	2	Mildenhall - - -	365	2,283	357	2,493	1,187	1,306	1
Southampton - -	1,582	7,913	1,636	9,617	4,130	5,487	33	Needham - - -	258	1,348	284	1,301	586	715	—
Stockbridge - - -	161	643	144	663	319	344	1	Newmarket§ - -	318	1,792	332	1,917	858	1,059	—
Titchfield - - -	554	2,949	552	3,227	1,610	1,617	1	Neyland - - -	154	881	184	933	440	493	—
Whitchurch - - -	224	1,275	174	818	368	450	1	Orford - - -	83	751	95	737	296	441	—
*Winchester - - -	810	5,826	1,123	6,705	3,229	3,476	11	Saxmundham - -	103	855	114	957	452	505	—
Yarmouth - - -	73	343	88	427	195	232	—	Southwold - - -	270	1,054	320	1,369	655	714	6
Total -	18,474	103,210	21,365	116,719	53,731	62,988	273	Stow Market - -	283	1,761	399	2,006	936	1,070	2
STAFFORD.								Sudbury - - -	612	3,283	588	3,471	1,507	1,964	1
Betley - - -	141	670	146	761	359	402	—	Wickham Market	90	896	133	906	405	501	—
Bilston - - -	1,301	6,914	1,848	9,646	4,887	4,759	14	Woodbridge - - -	599	3,020	694	4,322	1,842	2,490	8
Bromley-Abbots -	202	808	199	1,019	470	549	3	Woolpit - - -	113	625	107	669	333	336	—
Continued								Total -	12,564	65,892	13,953	74,004	33,678	40,326	62

† Tamworth is divided by the river Tame, one part being in Staffordshire, and the other in Warwickshire.
§ Part of Newmarket is in Cambridge, but the whole is entered here.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT of the NUMBER of HOUSES and INHABITANTS, in 1801 and 1811,

In every CITY, MARKET TOWN, and other TOWN in GREAT BRITAIN,

Distinguishing, in the latter Period, the Number of Males and Females.

To which is added the Number of Houses building in every Town throughout Great Britain;

Also a List of all the Towns, arranged progressively, which contain more than 10,000 Inhabitants.

From the Authentic Returns presented to Parliament.

ENGLAND.

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Counties:—	1801.		1811.					Counties:—	1801.		1811.				
	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.		Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.
SURREY,								WARWICK,							
Bagshot - - -	190	1,136	153	779	389	390	—	<i>continued.</i>							
Blechingley - - -	186	1,344	184	1,116	575	541	—	Coleshill - - -	283	1,437	344	1,639	789	850	1
Camberwell - - -	1,224	7,059	1,939	11,309	4,854	6,455	122	* Coventry - - -	3,134	16,034	3,498	17,923	8,197	9,726	12
Chertsey - - -	569	2,819	687	3,629	1,779	1,850	7	Henley-in-Arden - - -	245	1,093	254	1,055	456	599	—
Chiddingfold - - -	163	848	162	933	475	458	—	Kenilworth - - -	418	1,968	471	2,279	1,145	1,134	—
Clapham - - -	487	3,864	784	5,083	2,150	2,933	21	Kineton - - -	165	779	175	813	401	412	1
Croydon - - -	1,074	5,743	1,445	7,801	3,616	4,185	25	Nuneaton - - -	1,165	4,769	1,101	4,947	2,020	2,927	—
Dorking - - -	583	3,058	606	3,259	1,594	1,665	1	Rugby - - -	292	1,487	334	1,805	989	816	1
Egham - - -	370	2,190	546	2,823	1,371	1,452	—	Solihull - - -	493	2,473	524	2,581	1,249	1,332	4
Epsom - - -	435	2,404	403	2,515	1,200	1,315	—	Southam - - -	192	935	164	1,007	491	516	1
Ewell - - -	200	1,112	235	1,135	567	568	2	Stratford-on-Avon - - -	530	2,418	561	2,842	1,340	1,502	2
Farnham - - -	482	2,508	534	2,911	1,351	1,560	4	Sutton Coldfield - - -	578	2,847	617	2,959	1,417	1,542	2
Godalming - - -	486	3,405	678	3,543	1,720	1,823	2	Tamworth. <i>see</i> Stafford							
Guildford - - -	483	2,634	510	2,974	1,382	1,592	17	Warwick - - -	1,084	5,755	1,272	6,497	3,012	3,485	11
Haslemere - - -	144	642	156	756	351	405	—	Total . . .	26,110	120,873	27,456	137,889	64,760	73,129	182
Kingston-upon-Thames } - - -	682	3,793	722	4,144	1,933	2,211	4	WESTMORELAND.							
Leatherhead - - -	200	1,078	214	1,209	580	629	3	Ambleside - - -	122	538	132	624	290	334	2
London Suburbs } - - -	12,848	70,251	18,486	97,141	42,589	54,552	436	Appleby - - -	121	711	208	1,100	538	562	—
Putney - - -	631	2,428	488	2,881	1,287	1,594	5	Brough - - -	117	694	135	758	369	389	—
Richmond - - -	888	4,628	865	5,219	2,253	2,966	10	Burton-in-Kendal - - -	128	548	136	857	411	446	1
Ryegate - - -	206	923	213	1,128	508	620	1	Kendal - - -	1,424	6,892	1,508	7,505	3,311	4,194	2
Southwark † - - -	11,321	67,448	12,096	72,119	33,611	38,508	121	Kirkby Lonsdale - - -	260	1,283	282	1,368	656	712	6
Streatham - - -	388	2,357	438	2,729	1,317	1,412	2	Kirkby Stephen - - -	209	1,141	258	1,235	582	653	1
Wandsworth - - -	722	4,445	902	5,644	2,728	2,916	3	Milnthorpe - - -	214	968	224	1,016	450	566	1
Total - - -	34,962	198,117	43,446	242,780	110,180	132,600	786	Orton - - -	298	1,230	289	1,333	633	700	3
								Total . . .	2,893	14,005	3,172	15,796	7,240	8,556	16
SUSSEX.								WILTS.							
Arundel - - -	355	1,855	412	2,188	1,011	1,177	5	Aldbourn, <i>alias</i> } - - -	265	1,280	274	1,260	594	666	—
Battle - - -	294	2,040	363	2,531	1,232	1,299	2	Auburn - - -							
Brighton - - -	1,424	7,339	2,378	12,012	5,069	6,943	80	Amesbury - - -	181	721	177	723	338	385	1
*Chichester - - -	831	4,744	1,215	6,425	2,878	3,547	10	Bedwin, Great - - -	316	1,632	173	851	432	419	—
Cuckfield - - -	292	1,693	303	2,088	1,063	1,025	3	Bradford - - -	1,288	7,302	1,358	7,722	3,806	3,916	7
East Bourne - - -	91	764	124	720	353	367	1	Calne - - -	781	3,767	750	3,547	1,621	1,926	3
East Grinstead - - -	389	2,659	448	2,804	1,375	1,429	2	Chippenham - - -	683	3,366	701	3,410	1,580	1,830	4
Hastings - - -	562	2,982	703	3,848	1,739	2,109	7	Corsham - - -	482	2,402	495	2,395	1,137	1,258	—
Hailsham - - -	135	897	149	1,029	524	505	1	Cricklade - - -	219	1,333	278	1,556	692	864	1
Horsham - - -	573	3,204	634	3,839	1,868	1,971	4	Devizes - - -	1,593	7,909	707	3,750	1,776	1,974	18
Lewes - - -	512	3,309	922	6,821	2,880	3,341	23	Downton - - -	524	2,426	551	2,624	1,207	1,417	1
Mithurst - - -	194	1,073	199	1,256	615	641	—	Heytesbury - - -	210	1,072	215	1,023	454	569	—
Newhaven - - -	100	584	148	755	362	393	—	Highworth - - -	254	1,493	123	601	277	324	—
Petworth - - -	403	2,264	453	2,459	1,129	1,330	—	Hindon - - -	176	793	173	781	374	407	—
Rye - - -	397	2,187	474	2,681	1,226	1,455	2	Lavington, East - - -	167	918	194	899	400	499	—
Seaford - - -	153	847	160	1,001	464	537	2	Ludgershall - - -	131	471	127	487	237	250	—
Shoreham, New - - -	161	799	168	770	328	442	—	Malden - - -	207	1,027	242	1,152	503	649	1
Steyning - - -	219	1,174	187	1,210	602	608	—	Malmesbury - - -	464	2,367	456	2,579	1,277	1,302	—
Storrington - - -	134	846	143	792	405	387	1	Marlborough - - -	785	4,030	778	4,110	1,891	2,219	3
Uckfield - - -	110	811	147	916	413	503	1	Melksham - - -	182	881	197	961	460	501	—
Winchelsea - - -	106	627	134	652	302	350	1	Mere - - -	1,534	7,668	1,567	8,243	3,456	4,787	8
Total - - -	7,435	42,698	9,864	56,197	25,838	30,359	145	Salisbury - - -	248	1,198	262	1,341	624	717	1
								Swindon - - -	1,085	5,799	1,170	6,075	2,615	3,460	1
WARWICK.								Trowbridge - - -	983	4,932	1,065	4,866	2,257	2,609	3
Alcester - - -	349	1,625	411	1,862	840	1,022	5	Warminster - - -	354	1,837	348	1,799	823	976	5
Atherstone - - -	586	2,650	601	2,921	1,390	1,531	—	Westbury - - -	350	2,144	392	1,963	890	1,073	1
Birmingham - - -	16,403	73,670	16,931	85,753	40,518	45,235	140	Wilton - - -	294	1,244	313	1,390	666	724	12
Bitford - - -	193	928	198	1,006	506	500	2	Wotton Bassett - - -							
Continued - - -								Total - - -	13,757	70,012	13,084	66,108	30,387	35,721	75

† Including St. Thomas's and Guy's Hospitals.

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Counties :—	1801.		1811.				Houses building.	Counties :	1801.		1811.				Houses building.	
	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.			Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.		
WORCESTER.								YORK <i>continued.</i>								
<i>Bewdley</i> - - -	847	3,671	662	3,454	1,583	1,871	7	<i>Pontefract</i> - - -	741	3,097	867	3,605	1,628	1,977	12	
<i>Bromesgrove</i> - -	1,178	5,898	1,412	6,932	3,349	3,583	7	<i>Richmond</i> - - -	547	2,861	510	3,056	1,331	1,725	2	
<i>Droitwich</i> - - -	439	1,845	434	2,079	967	1,112	1	<i>Ripley</i> - - - -	58	270	55	273	131	142	—	
<i>Dudley</i> - - -	2,040	10,107	2,684	13,925	6,961	6,964	39	<i>Rippon</i> - - -	529	3,211	575	3,633	1,702	1,931	16	
<i>Evesham</i> - - -	643	2,837	685	3,068	1,371	1,697	6	<i>Rotheram</i> - - -	704	3,070	725	2,950	1,356	1,594	6	
<i>Kidderminster</i> - -	1,295	6,110	1,606	8,038	3,848	4,190	12	<i>Scarborough</i> - -	1,665	6,688	1,708	7,067	2,962	4,105	4	
<i>Pershore</i> - - -	416	1,910	486	2,179	1,002	1,177	2	<i>Sedbergh</i> - - -	368	1,639	344	1,805	863	942	—	
<i>Shipston</i> - - -	280	1,293	292	1,377	647	730	5	<i>Selby</i> - - - -	432	2,861	741	3,363	1,554	1,809	1	
<i>Stourbridge</i> - - -	760	3,431	857	4,072	1,932	2,140	9	<i>Settle</i> - - - -	234	1,136	273	1,153	524	629	1	
<i>Tenbury</i> - - -	240	1,138	305	1,562	772	790	3	<i>Sheffield</i> - - -	7,161	31,314	7,870	55,840	17,387	18,453	57	
<i>Upton</i> - - -	405	1,858	392	2,023	936	1,087	2	<i>Sherburn</i> - - -	199	953	188	958	489	469	—	
<i>*Worcester</i> - - -	2,370	11,352	2,489	13,814	5,953	7,861	38	<i>Skipton</i> - - -	509	2,305	605	2,868	1,323	1,545	4	
Total - - -	10,913	51,450	12,304	62,523	29,321	33,202	131	<i>Snaith</i> - - -	180	688	170	743	357	386	—	
YORK.								WALES.								
<i>Abberford</i> - - -	124	650	123	649	337	312	1	ANGLESEA.								
<i>Aldborough</i> - - -	112	445	105	464	228	236	—	<i>Amlwch</i> - - -	1,035	4,977	963	4,210	1,959	2,251	—	
<i>Asknigg</i> - - -	176	761	177	745	377	368	1	<i>Beaumaris</i> - - -	269	1,576	297	1,810	809	1,001	8	
<i>Barnesley</i> - - -	722	3,606	967	5,014	2,578	2,436	27	<i>Holyhead</i> - - -	503	2,132	544	3,005	1,317	1,688	17	
<i>Bawtry</i> - - -	174	798	182	918	421	497	3	<i>Newborough</i> - -	177	599	183	750	350	400	—	
<i>Bedale</i> - - -	226	1,005	214	1,078	523	555	—	Total - -	1,984	9,284	1,987	9,775	4,433	5,340	25	
<i>Beverley</i> - - -	1,335	6,001	1,513	6,731	3,024	3,707	7	BRECON.								
<i>Bingley</i> - - -	437	2,050	474	2,391	1,184	1,207	3	<i>Brecon</i> - - - -	540	2,576	757	3,196	1,433	1,763	14	
<i>Boroughbridge</i> - -	114	680	133	747	373	374	1	<i>Builth or Buallt. See</i>								
<i>Bradford</i> - - -	1,368	6,393	1,602	7,767	3,649	4,118	20	<i>Llan-fair.</i>								
<i>Bridlington</i> - - -	707	3,130	869	3,741	1,706	2,035	—	<i>Crickhowell</i> - -	126	566	144	611	291	320	3	
<i>Cawcod</i> - - -	247	1,025	249	1,053	500	553	—	<i>Hay</i> - - - -	201	882	240	1,099	524	575	2	
<i>Dent</i> - - -	355	1,773	386	1,663	796	867	—	<i>Llan-fair, alias</i> }	112	677	189	815	384	431	1	
<i>Doncaster</i> - - -	1,246	5,697	1,480	6,935	3,110	3,825	28	<i>Builth.</i>								
<i>Driffield, Great</i> -	327	1,411	406	1,857	890	967	5	Total - -	979	4,701	1,330	5,721	2,632	3,089	20	
<i>Easingwold</i> - - -	272	1,467	296	1,576	809	767	—	CARDIGAN.								
<i>Frodlingham</i> - -	95	415	120	552	280	272	—	<i>Aberystwyth</i> - -	348	1,758	479	2,264	939	1,325	26	
<i>Gisborough</i> - - -	421	1,719	429	1,824	853	981	1	<i>Cardigan</i> - - -	435	1,911	446	2,129	889	1,240	—	
<i>Halifax</i> - - -	1,975	8,886	2,259	9,159	4,151	5,008	3	<i>Lampeter</i> - - -	161	669	132	692	340	352	10	
<i>Harewood</i> - - -	142	707	160	771	363	408	1	<i>Llanarth</i> - - -	196	826	203	845	403	442	—	
<i>Hawes</i> - - -	272	1,223	286	1,185	580	605	2	<i>Tregaron, alias</i> }	244	1,035	242	1,133	520	613	2	
<i>Helmley</i> - - -	249	1,449	262	1,415	681	734	1	<i>Caron.</i>								
<i>Heydon</i> - - -	144	592	166	780	373	407	—	Total - -	1,384	6,199	1,502	7,063	3,091	3,972	38	
<i>Hornsea</i> - - -	133	533	156	704	323	381	3	CARMARTHEN.								
<i>Howden</i> - - -	325	1,552	328	1,812	830	982	1	<i>Carmarthen</i> - - -	945	5,548	1,189	7,275	3,121	4,154	10	
<i>Huddersfield</i> - -	1,398	7,268	1,900	9,671	4,824	4,847	22	<i>Kidwelly</i> - - -	290	1,150	342	1,441	613	828	1	
<i>Hull</i> - - -	4,767	29,516	4,917	26,792	11,998	14,794	8	<i>Llandilo Vawr</i> - -	141	647	228	1,103	526	577	1	
<i>Hunmanby</i> - - -	171	757	179	903	456	447	5	<i>Llandoverly</i> - -	237	1,242	279	1,442	680	762	6	
<i>Keighley</i> - - -	1,282	5,745	1,400	6,864	3,243	3,621	19	<i>Llanelly</i> - - -	501	2,972	890	3,891	1,856	2,035	10	
<i>Kilham</i> - - -	140	588	162	789	395	394	1	<i>Continued</i>								
<i>Kirby Moorside</i> -	287	1,396	321	1,673	828	845	—									
<i>Knaresborough</i> - -	766	3,388	902	4,234	1,962	2,272	3									
<i>Leeds</i> - - -	11,599	53,162	12,785	62,534	29,512	33,022	75									
<i>Malton, New</i> - -	604	3,047	762	3,713	1,799	1,914	1									
<i>Market Weighton</i> -	177	1,183	327	1,508	779	729	6									
<i>Masham</i> - - -	156	1,022	214	1,014	485	529	3									
<i>Middleham</i> - - -	155	728	181	714	304	410	—									
<i>Northallerton</i> - -	476	2,138	510	2,234	1,030	1,204	—									
<i>Otley</i> - - -	550	2,332	572	2,602	1,229	1,373	1									
<i>Pattrington</i> - - -	166	894	190	1,016	502	514	—									
<i>Penistone</i> - - -	108	493	114	515	275	240	1									
<i>Pickering</i> - - -	363	1,994	540	2,332	1,141	1,191	—									
<i>Pocklington</i> - - -	380	1,502	396	1,539	718	821	—									
<i>Continued</i>																

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT of the NUMBER of HOUSES and INHABITANTS, in 1801 and 1811.

In every CITY, MARKET TOWN, and other TOWN, in GREAT BRITAIN,

Distinguishing, in the latter Period, the Number of Males and Females.

To which is added, the Number of Houses building in every Town throughout Great Britain;

Also a List of all the Towns, arranged progressively, which contain more than 10,000 Inhabitants.

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WALES and SCOTLAND.

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Counties:—	1801.		1811.					Counties:—	1801.		1811.				
	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.		Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.
CARMARTHEN <i>continued.</i>								MONTGOMERY.							
Llangadoc - - -	378	1,821	382	1,964	933	1,029	1	Llanfair - - -	399	2,137	353	1,855	883	972	1
Llaugharne - - -	256	1,016	290	1,561	691	870	3	Llanidloes - - -	421	2,882	476	2,386	1,153	1,233	—
Newcastle-in-Emlyn. } Total - - -	156	508	127	679	337	342	—	Llanfyllin - - -	444	1,394	299	1,508	713	795	1
	2,904	14,904	3,727	19,356	8,759	10,597	32	Machynlleth - - -	244	1,118	293	1,252	557	695	—
								Montgomery - - -	161	972	192	932	442	490	1
CARNARVON.								Newtown - - -	203	990	437	2,025	898	1,127	1
Abercromby - - -	182	889	223	1,053	484	569	3	Pool, <i>alias</i> } Welshpool. } Total - - -	543	2,872	706	3,440	1,649	1,791	11
*Bangor - - -	304	1,770	460	2,383	1,094	1,289	14		2,415	12,365	2,756	13,398	6,295	7,103	15
Carnarvon - - -	202	1,289	223	1,431	610	821	5								
Crickieth - - -	84	396	94	455	214	245	7	PEMBROKE.							
Nevin - - -	242	1,028	277	1,177	470	707	3	Fishguard - - -	363	1,503	420	1,572	633	939	1
Pulhelly - - -	195	972	203	1,128	538	590	—	Haverford West - - -	613	2,880	642	3,093	1,257	1,836	10
Total - - -	1,209	6,344	1,480	7,631	3,410	4,221	32	Kilgerran - - -	191	854	110	769	391	378	2
								Milford - - -	151	695	183	897	412	485	—
DENBIGH.								Narberth - - -	340	1,531	393	1,779	767	1,012	9
Abergeley - - -	302	1,748	400	1,944	926	1,018	3	Newport - - -	317	1,392	353	1,433	535	898	2
Denbigh - - -	552	2,391	631	2,714	1,228	1,486	5	Pembroke - - -	487	2,515	493	2,415	1,070	1,345	8
Llangollen - - -	289	1,287	165	763	369	394	2	*St. David's - - -	418	1,803	442	1,816	803	1,013	3
Llanrwst - - -	662	2,549	467	2,502	1,149	1,353	3	Tenby - - -	207	844	258	1,176	474	702	7
Ruthin - - -	246	1,115	268	1,292	612	680	3	Wiston - - -	102	569	100	607	296	311	3
Wrexham - - -	604	2,575	664	3,006	1,329	1,677	3	Total - - -	3,189	14,586	3,394	15,557	6,638	8,919	45
Total - - -	2,655	11,665	2,595	12,221	5,613	6,608	19								
								RADNOR.							
FLINT.								Knighton - - -	221	785	228	952	439	513	2
Caerwys - - -	162	773	209	863	416	447	—	Presteign - - -	216	1,057	237	1,114	526	588	2
Flint - - -	312	1,169	301	1,433	711	722	10	Radnor, New - - -	73	329	75	380	191	189	—
Hawarden - - -	769	4,071	832	4,436	2,263	2,173	—	Rhayader - - -	82	374	97	446	201	245	2
Holywell - - -	1,146	5,567	1,342	6,394	2,925	3,469	6	Total - - -	592	2,545	637	2,892	1,357	1,535	6
Mold - - -	700	4,235	1,031	5,083	2,465	2,618	2								
Newmarket - - -	99	451	89	469	235	234	—	SCOTLAND.							
*St. Asaph - - -	277	1,515	310	1,520	681	839	6	ABERDEEN.							
Total - - -	3,465	17,781	4,114	20,198	9,696	10,502	24	*Aberdeen - - -	1,797	17,597	1,945	21,639	8,713	12,926	20
								Alford - - -	154	644	142	718	363	355	—
GLAMORGAN.								Banchory - - -	366	1,557	400	1,867	882	985	4
Bridgend - - -	150	759	164	850	424	426	1	Birre - - -	284	1,266	269	1,257	567	690	4
Cardiff - - -	327	1,870	485	2,457	1,084	1,373	6	Charleston - - -	174	730	181	754	356	398	—
Caerphilly, <i>alias</i> } Energlyn. } Cowbridge - - -	159	858	194	1,013	462	551	2	Ellon - - -	480	2,022	471	2,194	1,078	1,116	—
*Llandaff - - -	192	860	108	504	221	283	—	Fraserburgh - - -	511	2,215	379	2,271	1,031	1,240	5
Llantrissant - - -	378	1,715	254	2,122	1,098	1,024	3	Huntley - - -	498	2,863	622	2,764	1,186	1,578	2
Lougher - - -	86	365	121	473	221	252	1	Inch - - -	192	798	217	918	429	480	2
Merthyr Tydyl - - -	247	1,256	253	1,312	646	664	3	Inverurie - - -	194	783	214	907	453	454	4
Neath - - -	554	2,572	585	2,740	1,242	1,498	3	Kincaidine O'Neil	413	1,710	400	1,645	761	884	6
Penrice - - -	65	289	70	353	161	192	—	Kintore - - -	198	846	234	863	394	469	3
Swansea - - -	1,203	6,099	1,695	8,196	3,704	4,492	7	Meldrum - - -	411	1,584	423	1,655	736	919	4
Total - - -	3,511	17,332	4,093	20,870	9,690	11,180	27	Old Deer † - - -	745	2,984	919	3,646	1,651	1,995	5
								Peterhead - - -	836	4,491	919	4,707	1,802	2,905	—
MERIONETH.								Rayne - - -	290	1,228	299	1,249	575	674	2
Bala - - -	316	1,463	327	1,514	705	809	3	Rhynie - - -	160	676	157	676	323	353	—
Barmouth - - -	195	875	213	1,003	461	542	2	Skene - - -	293	1,140	307	1,297	574	723	—
Dinasmouthy - - -	129	702	129	667	318	349	—	Strathdon - - -	290	1,354	316	1,463	688	775	5
Dolgelly - - -	658	2,949	545	3,064	1,345	1,719	5	Strichen - - -	382	1,520	416	1,760	732	1,028	2
Harleigh - - -	109	633	105	596	290	306	1	Tarland - - -	202	922	207	932	444	488	3
Towyn - - -	436	2,092	482	1,941	883	1,058	—	Turreff - - -	467	2,090	500	2,227	1,007	1,220	2
Total - - -	1,843	8,714	1,801	8,785	4,002	4,783	11	Tyrie - - -	273	1,044	330	1,454	615	839	4
								Total - - -	9,610	52,064	10,267	58,863	25,360	33,503	77

† Old Deer is partly in Banffshire; but the major part is in Aberdeenshire, where the whole is entered.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT of the NUMBER of HOUSES and INHABITANTS, in 1801 and 1811

In every CITY, MARKET TOWN, and other TOWN, in GREAT BRITAIN,

Distinguishing, in the latter Period, the Number of Males and Females.

To which is added, the Number of Houses building in every Town throughout Great Britain;

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SCOTLAND.

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Counties:—	1801.		1811.					Counties:—	1801.		1811.				
	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.		Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.
ARGYLL.								CAITHNESS.							
Appin - - -	441	1,975	447	2,084	929	1,155	—	Thurso - - -	786	3,628	590	3,462	1,538	1,924	2
Cambletown - -	1,000	7,093	1,007	7,807	3,367	4,440	3	Wick - - -	890	3,986	1,002	5,080	2,394	2,686	36
Coll - - -	226	1,162	225	1,277	623	654	4	Total - - -	1,676	7,614	1,592	8,542	3,932	4,510	38
Craignish - - -	183	904	183	826	397	429	—	CLACKMANAN.							
Dunoon - - -	372	1,750	361	2,130	1,045	1,085	4	Alloa - - -	817	5,214	791	5,096	2,314	2,782	4
Inveraray - - -	101	1,051	104	1,113	492	621	—	Clackmanan - -	739	2,961	689	3,605	1,657	1,948	5
Kilcalmonel - -	467	2,214	464	2,265	1,086	1,179	7	Total - - -	1,556	8,175	1,480	8,701	3,971	4,730	9
Morvern - - -	353	2,083	315	1,883	876	1,007	—	CROMARTY. See							
Tarbat, East - -	236	1,277	243	1,291	596	695	—	Ross and Cromarty.							
Tabermory - - -	326	1,756	353	1,994	973	1,021	—	DUMBARTON.							
Total - - -	3,705	21,265	3,702	22,670	10,384	12,286	18	Arrochar - - -	125	470	81	420	208	212	—
AYR.								Dumbarton - - -	329	2,541	385	3,121	1,373	1,748	9
Ayr - - -	745	5,492	861	6,291	2,648	3,643	23	Kirkintilloch - -	628	3,210	609	3,740	1,784	1,956	—
Ballantrae - - -	170	837	217	980	465	515	3	Luss - - -	189	953	185	965	470	495	1
Beith - - -	447	3,103	516	3,755	1,715	2,040	4	Total - - -	1,271	7,174	1,260	8,246	3,835	4,411	10
Cumnock - - -	600	2,910	656	3,372	1,582	1,790	3	DUMFRIES.							
Dalry - - -	398	2,321	420	2,815	1,326	1,489	2	Annan - - -	471	2,570	591	3,341	1,664	1,677	9
Girvan - - -	464	2,260	552	3,097	1,431	1,666	3	Dumfries - - -	1,275	7,288	1,454	9,262	4,103	5,159	16
Irvine - - -	729	4,584	697	5,750	2,470	3,280	6	Ecclesfechan - - -	213	1,053	217	1,131	512	619	—
Kilmarnock - -	1,093	8,079	918	10,148	4,634	5,514	5	Langholm - - -	391	2,039	403	2,105	955	1,150	4
Kilmaurs - - -	242	1,288	253	1,432	685	747	—	Lochmaben - - -	499	2,053	532	2,392	1,111	1,281	6
Kilwinning - - -	506	2,700	524	3,291	1,607	1,684	1	Lockerby - - -	285	1,507	336	1,683	845	838	6
Largs - - -	279	1,361	324	1,801	835	966	5	Moffat - - -	336	1,824	345	1,824	850	974	1
Mauchline - - -	318	1,746	315	1,871	881	990	2	Sanquhar - - -	478	2,350	554	2,709	1,260	1,449	8
Maybole - - -	544	3,162	665	3,946	1,868	2,078	4	Thornhill - - -	196	970	225	1,176	557	619	2
Muirkirk - - -	379	2,560	391	2,810	1,463	1,347	1	Total - - -	4,144	21,654	4,657	25,623	11,857	13,766	52
Newmills - - -	175	975	219	1,126	529	597	—	EDINBURGH.							
Saltcoats - - -	201	1,231	213	1,684	781	903	9	Dalkeith - - -	511	3,906	550	4,709	2,002	2,707	3
Steventon - - -	383	2,146	447	2,911	1,356	1,555	2	Edinburgh, in- } cluding Leith }	9,385	82,560	7,719	102,987	43,982	59,005	90
Stewarton - - -	447	2,657	479	3,049	1,438	1,611	5	Fisherrow - - -	61	234	88	364	162	202	—
Total - - -	8,120	49,412	8,667	60,129	27,714	32,415	78	Mid Calder - - -	163	1,014	199	1,408	684	724	—
BANFF.								Musselburgh and } Inveresk }	1,469	6,604	1,328	6,393	2,923	3,470	3
Banff - - -	673	3,571	665	3,603	1,540	2,063	—	Total - - -	11,585	94,318	9,884	115,861	49,753	66,108	96
Cullen - - -	264	1,076	294	1,070	435	635	1	ELGIN.							
Keith - - -	749	3,284	765	3,352	1,391	1,961	4	Elgin - - -	1,025	4,345	983	4,602	1,923	2,679	10
Macduff - - -	112	511	119	627	287	340	—	Fochabers - - -	171	799	195	869	402	467	1
Mortlach - - -	412	1,876	404	1,707	833	934	4	Forres - - -	691	3,114	691	2,925	1,225	1,700	6
Old Deer. See								Garmouth - - -	304	1,236	313	1,357	651	706	2
Aberdeen - - -								Lossiemouth - - -	171	799	195	869	402	467	1
Portsoy - - -	136	589	143	599	271	328	—	Roths - - -	387	1,521	365	1,605	713	892	8
Total - - -	2,346	10,907	2,390	11,018	4,757	6,261	9	Total - - -	2,749	11,814	2,742	11,227	5,316	6,911	28
BERWICK.								FIFE.							
Ayton - - -	244	1,453	219	1,379	636	743	3	Aberdour - - -	226	1,260	230	1,302	578	724	—
Coldingham - - -	515	2,391	498	2,424	1,174	1,250	4	Abernethy. See							
Coldstream - - -	398	2,269	414	2,384	1,103	1,281	3	Perth.							
Dunse - - -	470	3,157	485	3,082	1,453	1,629	3	Anstruther - - -	264	1,265	241	1,401	634	767	—
Earlston - - -	337	1,478	298	1,528	738	790	1	Auchtermuchty	435	2,060	522	2,403	1,108	1,295	3
Eyemouth - - -	186	899	146	962	444	518	1								
Greenlaw - - -	258	1,270	260	1,260	596	664	2								
Lauder - - -	349	1,760	352	1,742	841	901	1								
Total - - -	2,757	14,677	2,672	14,761	6,985	7,776	18								
BUTE.															
Lamlash - - -	165	875	162	854	429	425	—								
Rothsay - - -	606	5,231	440	5,544	1,494	2,050	2								
Total - - -	771	6,106	602	4,398	1,923	2,475	2								

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT of the NUMBER of HOUSES and INHABITANTS, in 1810 and 1811.

In every CITY, MARKET TOWN, and other TOWN in GREAT BRITAIN,

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To which is added, the Number of Houses building in every Town throughout Great Britain;

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SCOTLAND.

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Shires:—	1801.		1811.					Shires:—	1801.		1811.				
	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.		Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.
FIFE, continued.								KINCARDINE.							
Balmerino - - -	175	786	194	921	455	466	—	Bervie, <i>alias</i> Inverbervie. }	210	1,068	199	927	415	512	3
Burntisland - -	271	1,530	259	1,934	854	1,080	1	Lawrence kirk -	251	1,215	295	1,309	584	725	5
Craik - - -	344	1,652	322	1,600	673	927	3	Middletown - -	97	571	102	607	268	339	1
Cupar - - -	796	4,463	656	4,758	2,160	2,598	20	Stonehaven - -	241	793	249	839	332	507	3
Dunfermline - -	1,554	9,980	1,836	11,649	5,495	6,154	15	Total - -	799	3,647	845	3,682	1,599	2,083	12
Dysart - - -	846	5,385	807	5,506	2,367	3,139	2								
Ely - - -	135	730	159	886	365	521	4	KINROSS.							
Falkland - - -	460	2,211	447	2,317	1,070	1,247	1	Kinross - - -	390	2,124	399	2,214	1,000	1,214	9
Inverkeithing -	350	2,228	396	2,400	1,126	1,274	1								
Kilrenny - - -	222	1,043	238	1,433	561	672	—	KIRKCUDBRIGHT.							
Kinghorn - - -	316	2,308	355	2,204	983	1,221	—	Creetown - - -	103	813	107	921	437	484	—
Kirkaldy - - -	362	3,248	387	3,747	1,627	2,120	3	Galloway, New -	115	545	117	659	311	348	—
Largo - - -	375	1,867	397	1,973	854	1,119	6	Gatehouse - - -	151	927	163	1,013	473	540	1
Leven - - -	193	920	240	1,164	502	662	8	Kirkcudbright -	369	2,380	398	2,763	1,257	1,506	9
Limekilns - - -	205	945	221	1,072	514	558	1	Total - -	738	4,665	785	5,356	2,478	2,878	10
Methil - - -	132	816	141	922	414	508	1								
Newburgh - - -	267	1,936	279	1,951	829	1,122	4	LANARK.							
Pittcnweem - -	190	1,072	192	1,096	483	613	2	Airdrie - - -	197	983	213	1,101	513	588	2
*St. Andrews -	781	4,203	778	4,311	1,926	2,385	5	Biggar - - -	269	1,216	267	1,376	638	738	1
Wemyss - - -	576	3,264	565	3,691	1,657	2,034	2	Carnwath - - -	644	2,680	688	3,088	1,462	1,626	5
Total - -	9,475	55,172	9,862	60,441	27,235	33,206	82	Douglas - - -	333	1,730	314	1,873	889	984	—
								Glasgow - - -	16,460	77,385	18,249	100,749	45,275	55,474	72
FORFAR.								Hamilton - - -	771	6,453	770	6,453	2,928	3,525	3
Alyth - - -	579	2,536	593	2,971	1,439	1,532	3	Kilbride - - -	471	2,330	527	2,906	1,415	1,491	2
Arbroath, <i>alias</i> Aberbrothick. }	625	4,943	641	5,280	2,267	3,013	5	Lanark - - -	643	4,692	658	5,667	2,444	3,223	6
Brechin - - -	772	5,466	784	5,559	2,514	3,045	3	Rutherglen - -	368	2,437	747	3,529	1,660	1,869	9
Cupar-Angus, See Perth. }	† 6,952	26,084	2,535	29,616	12,943	16,673	29	Stonehouse - -	234	1,259	351	1,655	782	873	6
Dundee - - -	739	5,165	762	5,652	2,703	2,949	5	Strathaven - -	439	2,324	465	2,439	1,036	1,403	—
Forfar - - -	387	1,931	404	1,856	831	1,025	—	Wilsontown - -	134	683	143	701	321	380	3
Glamis - - -	949	4,421	975	4,791	2,128	2,663	1	Total - -	21,013	104,172	23,392	131,537	59,363	72,174	109
Kirriemuir - -	67	318	69	300	133	167	1								
Lunan - - -	1,079	7,974	1,084	8,955	3,837	5,118	6	LINLITHGOW.							
Montrose - - -	797	4,243	880	4,771	2,052	2,719	7	Abercorn - - -	184	814	162	885	413	472	4
St. Vigeans - -	12,946	63,081	8,727	69,751	30,847	38,904	60	Bathgate - - -	378	2,513	437	2,919	1,356	1,563	11
Total - -								Borrows-town-ness, <i>alias</i> Boness. }	356	2,790	364	2,704	1,102	1,602	4
								Linlithgow - -	489	3,594	559	4,022	1,835	2,187	2
HADDINGTON.								Queensferry - -	77	454	77	558	271	287	—
Berwick, North -	270	1,583	250	1,727	759	968	4	Whitburn - - -	330	1,537	339	1,693	783	910	2
Dunbar - - -	717	3,951	701	3,965	1,661	2,304	3	Total . . .	1,814	11,702	1,958	12,781	5,760	7,021	23
Haddington - -	711	4,049	723	4,370	2,002	2,368	6								
Prestonkirk - -	308	1,471	320	1,642	806	836	1	NAIRN.							
Prestonpans - -	264	1,964	299	1,995	894	1,101	—	Nairn - - -	547	2,215	622	2,504	1,060	1,444	10
Seaton - - -	186	768	174	790	376	414	—								
Tranent - - -	651	3,046	639	3,036	1,387	1,649	1	ORKNEY AND SHETLAND.							
Total - -	3,107	16,852	3,105	17,525	7,885	9,640	15	Kirkwall - - -	279	1,677	287	1,715	649	1,066	—
								Lerwick - - -	229	1,706	255	1,949	738	1,211	3
INVERNESS.								Stromness - - -	444	2,223	422	2,297	999	1,298	2
Beanley - - -	159	813	163	859	413	446	1	Total . . .	952	5,606	964	5,961	2,386	3,575	5
Fort William -	123	759	131	815	397	418	1								
Grantown - - -	117	1,094	125	1,153	571	582	1								
Inverness - - -	1,431	8,732	1,725	10,757	4,667	6,090	26								
Laggan - - -	287	1,323	221	1,254	582	672	—								
Portree - - -	415	2,246	407	2,729	1,341	1,388	—								
Total - -	2,532	14,977	2,772	17,567	7,971	9,596	29								

† It is presumed there is some error in stating the number of Houses in Dundee in the Returns for 1801.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT of the NUMBER of HOUSES and INHABITANTS, in 1801 and 1811.

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From the Authentic Returns presented to Parliament.

SCOTLAND.

Shires: continued.	1801.		1811.					Shires:— ROSS AND CROMARTY. continued.	1801.		1811.				
	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.		Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Houses Building.
PEEBLES.															
Eddleston . . .	144	677	168	918	468	450	1	Fortrose	274	1,289	284	1,312	600	712	7
Linton	235	1,064	246	1,186	552	634	2	Kincaidine . . .	395	1,865	381	1,666	716	950	—
Peebles	411	2,088	420	2,485	1,189	1,296	2	Localsh	319	1,606	393	2,034	957	1,077	16
Total	790	3,829	834	4,589	2,209	2,380	5	Lochcarron . . .	226	1,178	290	1,485	722	763	4
PERTH.								Stornoway . . .	538	2,974	691	3,500	1,485	2,015	7
Abernethy † . .	318	1,355	331	1,635	759	876	1	Tain	514	2,277	521	2,384	1,061	1,323	5
Auchterarder . .	393	2,167	427	2,508	1,226	1,282	7	Tarbat	280	1,343	344	1,379	619	760	5
Blairgowrie . .	424	1,914	398	1,965	926	1,039	8	Ulapool	462	2,086	489	2,500	1,179	1,321	—
Callander . . .	377	2,282	363	2,042	904	1,138	2	Total	3,713	18,244	4,167	20,173	9,008	11,165	55
Comrie	499	2,458	523	2,689	1,237	1,452	6	ROXBURGH.							
Crieff	470	2,876	500	3,300	1,585	1,715	11	Hawick	440	2,798	456	3,688	1,705	1,983	3
Culross	280	1,502	286	1,611	725	886	1	Jedburgh . . .	676	3,834	688	4,454	1,957	2,497	9
Cuper-Angus § .	420	2,169	461	2,590	1,178	1,412	3	Kelso	527	4,196	531	4,408	1,979	2,429	5
Downe	94	428	105	499	236	263	—	Melrose	489	2,625	543	3,132	1,531	1,601	3
Dunblane . . .	514	2,619	487	2,733	1,272	1,461	1	Selkirk, See } Selkirk. }							
Dunkeld . . .	132	1,185	126	1,360	651	709	5	Total	2,132	13,453	2,218	15,682	7,172	8,510	20
Dunning . . .	272	1,504	281	1,723	836	887	1	SELKIRK.							
Errol	548	2,653	701	2,686	1,248	1,438	5	Galashiels . . .	169	844	187	986	468	518	2
Inchture . . .	194	949	212	954	427	527	1	Selkirk ¶ . . .	404	2,098	436	2,466	1,154	1,312	4
Kenmore . . .	681	3,346	635	3,624	1,691	1,933	—	Total	573	2,942	623	3,452	1,622	1,830	6
Killin	451	2,048	462	2,160	995	1,165	—	STIRLING.							
Kincaidine . .	474	2,212	492	2,419	1,131	1,288	—	Campsie	629	2,906	567	3,618	1,742	1,876	3
Kinnoul . . .	280	1,927	286	2,431	1,131	1,300	10	Denny	247	2,033	352	2,654	1,259	1,395	3
Kippen, See } Stirling. }								Drymen	335	1,607	327	1,628	808	820	4
Logierait . . .	700	2,890	657	3,001	1,389	1,612	1	Falkirk	1,200	8,838	1,303	9,929	4,541	5,388	12
Luncarty . . .	143	650	137	702	339	363	2	Kilsyth	565	1,762	628	3,206	1,488	1,718	2
Longforgan . .	328	1,569	357	1,809	876	933	5	Kippen† . . .	429	1,722	373	1,893	914	979	6
Meigle	221	946	201	923	426	497	—	St. Ninians . . .	1,364	6,849	1,365	7,636	3,701	3,935	6
Methven . . .	488	2,073	452	2,653	1,280	1,373	5	Stirling	630	5,256	743	5,820	2,549	3,271	6
Perth	1,408	14,878	4,700	16,948	7,687	9,261	15	Total	5,389	30,973	5,658	36,384	17,002	19,382	42
Total	10,109	58,600	13,580	64,965	30,155	34,810	90	SUTHERLAND.							
RENFREW.								Brora	163	865	179	881	392	489	—
Eaglesham . . .	178	1,176	228	1,424	696	728	3	Dornoch	562	2,362	608	2,681	1,219	1,462	12
Govan	113	851	123	917	451	466	2	Farr	444	2,408	453	2,408	1,082	1,326	—
Gourock	195	1,367	205	1,632	718	914	2	Tongue	158	1,348	298	1,493	640	853	3
Greenock . . .	1,038	17,458	1,143	19,042	7,978	11,064	2	Total	1,327	6,983	1,538	7,463	3,333	4,130	15
Johnston . . .	213	2,157	301	3,005	1,423	1,582	3	WIGTOWN.							
Lochwinnoch . .	417	2,955	495	3,514	1,618	1,896	3	Glenluce	311	1,589	398	1,993	970	1,023	2
Neilston . . .	524	3,796	636	4,949	2,205	2,744	5	Newton Stewart including Pennyngham. }	576	2,569	520	2,847	1,274	1,573	4
Paisley	1,168	17,026	1,503	19,937	8,843	11,094	9	Port Patrick . .	207	1,090	248	1,302	550	752	2
Pollockshaws . .	99	672	107	813	395	418	1	Stranraer . . .	349	1,722	384	1,923	785	1,138	3
Port Glasgow . .	439	3,865	357	5,116	2,322	2,794	1	Whithorn . . .	376	1,904	391	1,935	818	1,117	2
Renfrew	428	2,031	343	2,305	1,076	1,229	1	Wigtown	287	1,475	323	1,711	767	944	2
Total	4,812	53,354	5,441	62,654	27,725	34,929	32	Total	2,106	10,349	2,264	11,711	5,164	6,547	15
ROSS AND CROMARTY .															
Cromarty	417	2,208	492	2,413	1,022	1,391	7								
Dingwall	288	1,418	282	1,500	647	853	4								

† The greatest part of Abernethy is in Perth, where the whole is entered; the remainder is in Fifeshire.

§ Cuper-Angus includes the small part of the Town in Forfarshire or Angusshire.

|| Cromarty is locally situate in Rossshire, and for most purposes they are deemed to be united, nor can the Population be distinguished.

¶ The whole of Selkirk is entered in Selkirkshire, a very small part being in Roxburghshire.

† Part of Kippen is in Perthshire, the other part is in Stirling where the whole is entered.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT of the NUMBER of HOUSES and INHABITANTS, in 1801 and 1811,

In every CITY, MARKET TOWN, and other TOWN, in GREAT BRITAIN,

Distinguishing, in the latter Period, the Number of Males and Females.

To which is added, the Number of Houses building in every Town throughout Great Britain;

Also a List of all the Towns, arranged progressively, which contain more than 10,000 Inhabitants.

From the Authentic Returns presented to Parliament.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS IN PROGRESSION.

EXCEEDING 10,000 INHABITANTS.

	Year 1811.	Year 1801.		Year 1811.	Year 1801.
Metropolis	1,050,000	900,000	Woolwich	17,054	9,826
Edinburgh	102,987	82,560	Perth	16,948	14,878
Glasgow	100,749	77,385	Greenwich	16,947	14,339
Manchester	98,573	81,020	Shrewsbury	16,606	14,739
Liverpool	94,376	77,653	Chester	16,140	15,052
Birmingham	85,753	73,670	Blackburn	15,083	11,980
Bristol	76,433	63,645	Wolverhampton	14,836	12,565
Leeds	62,534	53,162	Wigan	14,060	10,989
Plymouth	56,060	43,194	Dudley	13,925	10,107
Portsmouth	40,567	32,166	Worcester	13,814	11,352
Norwich	37,256	36,832	Ipswich	13,670	11,277
Sheffield	35,840	31,314	Derby	13,043	10,832
Nottingham	34,253	28,861	Oxford	12,931	11,694
Bath	31,496	32,200	Chatham	12,652	10,505
Dundee	29,616	26,084	Colchester	12,544	11,520
Newcastle-upon-Tyne	27,587	28,365	Carlisle	12,531	10,221
Hull	26,792	29,516	Macclesfield	12,299	8,743
Bolton	24,149	17,416	Sunderland	12,289	12,412
Leicester	23,146	15,593	Brighton	12,012	7,339
Aberdeen	21,639	17,597	Warrington	11,738	10,567
Paisley	19,937	17,026	Dunfermline	11,649	9,980
Deptford	19,833	17,348	Camberwell	11,309	7,059
Dover	19,128	14,845	Cambridge	11,108	10,087
Ashton-under-line	19,052	15,632	Rochdale	10,968	5,460
Greenock	19,042	17,458	Reading	10,788	9,742
Exeter	18,896	17,398	Inverness	10,757	8,732
York	18,217	16,145	Lynn Regis	10,259	10,096
Great Yarmouth	17,977	14,845	Canterbury	10,200	9,000
Coventry	17,923	16,034	Kilmarnock	10,148	8,079
Stockport	17,545	14,830	Whitehaven	10,106	8,742
Preston	17,065	11,887			

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

The Towns are classed in Counties, the number of each being as follows:—

	Counties.	Towns.
England	40	861
Wales	12	78
Scotland	32	244
Total	84	1,183

The Counties in England, Wales, and Scotland respectively, and the Towns in each County are arranged alphabetically. From the Returns being in Parishes, Townships, &c. we have found considerable difficulty in coming at the population of the Towns. Besides the Population Returns several publications have been consulted, not one of which furnishes a complete list. The Table will be found to comprise a greater number of Towns than has ever been published. What is here meant by a Town is that which is usually so denominated from containing more than 500 Inhabitants, having a Market, or some Manufactures, or carrying on Trade, or such even, although reduced, as have been long distinguished as Towns.

Bambrough in Northumberland, once a Royal Burgh which sent two Members to Parliament, Raleigh in Essex, Milton Abbas in Dorsetshire, and many others that were formerly Market Towns are now inconsiderable Villages; and some Boroughs, as Gatton containing a single House, Old Sarum Seven Freeholders, Castle Rising reduced to two Burgesses the Clergyman and a Farmer, &c. which can no longer be considered Towns, have been omitted. The population of several Villages which from the vicinity of Manufactories and manufacturing Mills are rising to importance, not being distinguished in the Returns could not be ascertained.

It is deemed necessary to notice an apparent error in stating the number of Houses and Inhabitants in several Towns in the Returns under the Acts of 1801 and 1811, from which this enumeration is made, thus Edinburgh which has 9,385 Houses in 1801, has only 7,719 in 1811. Dundee, Andover in Southampton, Shepton Mallet in Somerset, and some others which are known to have increased will be found to have stated a greater number of Houses and Inhabitants in the former than in the latter period.

As a Table of reference, it is presumed it will be found extremely useful, being the result of considerable labour and research.

GENERAL STATEMENT of the NUMBER of HOUSES and INHABITANTS, in every County in GREAT BRITAIN, in 1811; distinguishing the Population of the TOWNS and COUNTRY in each County, According to the Returns to Parliament.

ENGLAND.	TOWNS.		COUNTRY.		TOTAL.		WALES.	TOWNS.		COUNTRY.		TOTAL.	
	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.		Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.
Counties:—							Counties:—						
Bedford	3,945	19,513	9,560	50,700	13,505	70,213	<i>continued.</i>	749,625	4,237,310	991,606	5,376,297	1,741,231	9,613,607
Berks	7,690	39,701	14,977	78,576	22,667	118,277	Cardigan	1,502	7,063	8,292	43,197	9,794	50,260
Buckingham . .	7,085	36,387	15,301	81,263	22,386	117,650	Carmarthen . . .	3,727	19,356	11,462	57,861	15,189	77,217
Cambridge . . .	6,163	30,506	11,326	70,603	17,489	101,109	Carnarvon	1,480	7,631	8,043	41,705	9,523	49,336
Chester	15,059	72,041	27,367	154,990	42,426	227,031	Denbigh	2,595	12,221	10,764	52,019	13,359	64,240
Cornwall	8,704	50,935	30,667	165,732	39,371	216,667	Flint	4,114	20,198	4,857	26,320	8,971	46,518
Cumberland . . .	9,415	56,449	15,137	77,295	24,552	133,744	Glamorgan	4,093	20,870	13,665	64,197	17,758	85,067
Derby	9,889	47,944	26,965	137,543	36,854	185,487	Merioneth	1,801	8,785	4,336	22,139	6,137	30,924
Devon	22,964	156,227	41,829	227,081	64,793	383,308	Montgomery . . .	2,756	13,398	6,767	38,533	9,523	51,931
Dorset	8,247	41,941	15,804	82,752	24,051	124,693	Pembroke	3,394	15,557	9,480	45,058	12,874	60,615
Durham	11,146	76,498	18,777	101,127	29,923	177,625	Radnor	637	2,892	3,528	18,008	4,165	20,900
Essex	12,893	69,590	30,948	182,883	43,841	252,473	ENGLAND AND WALES.	775,724	4,365,281	1,072,800	5,785,334	1,848,524	10,150,615
Gloucester . . .	27,415	149,168	26,625	136,346	54,040	285,514	SCOTLAND.						
Hereford	4,645	20,420	14,651	73,653	19,296	94,073	Shires.						
Hertford	8,059	42,945	12,722	68,709	20,781	111,654	Aberdeen	10,267	58,863	16,478	76,212	26,745	135,075
Huntingdon . . .	2,800	14,434	4,919	27,774	7,719	42,208	Argyll	3,702	22,670	13,140	62,915	16,842	85,585
Kent	38,072	217,646	25,662	155,449	63,734	373,095	Ayr	8,667	60,129	7,061	43,825	15,728	103,954
Lancaster	69,217	379,620	79,335	448,689	148,552	828,309	Banff	2,390	11,018	5,876	25,650	8,266	36,668
Leicester	9,868	48,753	20,781	101,666	30,649	150,419	Berwick	2,672	14,761	3,366	16,018	6,038	30,779
Lincoln	16,014	75,756	31,453	162,135	47,467	237,891	Bute	602	4,398	1,483	7,635	2,085	12,033
Middlesex	126,259	904,358	8,670	48,918	134,929	953,276	Caithness	1,592	8,542	2,848	14,877	4,440	23,419
Monmouth	2,706	13,895	9,421	48,232	12,127	62,127	Clackmanan	1,480	8,701	534	3,309	2,014	12,010
Norfolk	21,360	100,410	31,447	191,589	52,807	291,999	Dumbarton	1,260	8,246	2,048	15,943	3,308	24,189
Northampton . .	7,033	34,741	21,824	106,612	28,857	141,353	Dumfries	4,657	25,623	7,302	37,337	11,959	62,960
Northumberland .	9,307	69,498	20,077	102,663	29,384	172,161	Edinburgh	9,884	115,861	7,072	32,746	16,956	148,607
Nottingham . . .	12,265	60,010	20,033	102,890	32,298	162,900	Elgin	2,742	12,227	3,723	15,881	6,465	28,108
Oxford	6,617	36,413	16,584	82,778	23,201	119,191	Fife	9,862	60,441	8,239	40,831	18,101	101,272
Rutland	515	2,595	2,887	13,785	3,402	16,380	Forfar	8,727	69,751	7,913	37,513	16,640	107,264
Salop	16,234	79,522	20,401	114,776	36,635	194,298	Haddington	3,106	17,525	3,276	13,639	6,382	31,164
Somerset	19,024	108,689	35,110	194,491	54,134	303,180	Inverness	2,772	17,567	12,089	60,769	14,861	78,336
Southampton . .	21,365	116,719	22,875	128,361	44,240	245,080	Kincardine	845	3,682	5,156	23,757	6,001	27,439
Stafford	17,582	88,043	39,035	207,110	56,617	295,153	Kinross	399	2,214	1,018	5,031	1,417	7,245
Suffolk	15,953	74,004	23,898	160,207	37,851	234,211	Kirkcudbright . . .	785	5,356	5,634	28,328	6,419	33,684
Surrey	43,446	242,780	13,678	81,071	57,124	323,851	Lanark	23,392	131,537	9,832	60,215	33,224	191,752
Sussex	9,864	56,197	20,816	133,886	30,680	190,083	Linlithgow	1,958	12,781	1,326	6,670	3,284	19,451
Warwick	27,456	137,889	18,393	90,846	45,849	228,735	Nairn	622	2,504	1,392	5,747	2,014	8,251
Westmoreland . .	3,172	15,796	5,847	30,126	9,019	45,922	Orkney and Shetland.	964	5,961	7,367	40,192	8,331	46,153
Wilts	13,084	66,108	25,197	127,720	38,281	193,828	Peebles	834	4,589	978	5,346	1,812	9,935
Worcester	12,304	62,523	18,706	98,023	31,010	160,546	Perth	13,580	64,965	13,710	70,128	27,290	135,093
York	63,462	305,150	130,018	667,963	193,480	973,113	Renfrew	5,441	62,654	2,930	29,942	8,371	92,596
Total	746,308	4,221,814	979,723	5,317,013	1,726,031	9,538,827	Ross and Cromarty .	4,167	20,173	8,954	40,680	13,121	60,853
WALES.							Roxburgh	2,218	15,682	4,448	21,548	6,666	37,230
Counties:—							Selkirk	623	3,452	492	2,437	1,115	5,889
Anglesea	1,987	9,775	5,304	27,270	7,291	37,045	Stirling	5,658	36,384	3,666	21,790	9,324	58,174
Brecon	1,330	5,721	6,579	32,014	7,909	37,735	Sutherland	1,538	7,463	3,318	16,166	4,856	23,629
Continued.	749,625	4,237,310	991,606	5,376,297	1,741,231	9,613,607	Wigtown	2,264	11,711	3,083	15,180	5,347	26,891
							GREAT BRITAIN.	915,394	5,272,712	1,248,552	6,683,591	2,163,946	11,956,303

COMPARISON OF THE TWO PERIODS, 1801 and 1811.

	1801.						1811.					
	TOWNS.		COUNTRY.		TOTAL.		TOWNS.		COUNTRY.		TOTAL.	
	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Houses.	Inhabitants.
England	654,910	3,661,549	866,925	4,669,885	1,521,835	8,331,434	746,308	4,221,814	979,723	5,317,013	1,726,031	9,538,827
Wales	26,130	126,420	85,434	415,126	111,564	541,546	29,416	143,467	93,077	468,321	122,493	611,788
Scotland	135,558	788,100	168,532	810,968	304,090	1,599,068	139,670	907,431	175,752	898,257	315,422	1,805,688
Totals	816,598	4,576,069	1,120,891	5,895,979	1,937,489	10,472,048	915,394	5,272,712	1,248,552	6,683,591	2,163,946	11,956,303

GENERAL VIEW OF THE POPULATION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND;

Comprising the Number of *Houses, Families, Males and Females, Baptisms, Burials and Marriages* in every County in Great Britain, and in the Metropolis, and, generally, in Ireland, including the *Army, Navy, Marines, and Seamen in Registered Vessels*.—From Authentic Documents presented to Parliament, and ordered by the House of Commons to be printed 2nd July, 1812.

ENGLAND. Counties:	HOUSES.			FAMILIES.			POPULATION.		* BAPTISMS.		* BURIALS.		* MAR- RIAGES.
	Inhabited	Uninha- bited	Houses build- ing.	Families chiefly employed in Agri- culture.	Families chiefly employed in Trade, Manu- factures, and Handicraft.	Families not comprized in the two preceding Classes.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
Bedford . . .	13,286	219	139	9,431	4,155	1,341	33,171	37,042	1,012	975	648	647	580
Berks . . .	22,104	563	129	13,409	7,584	4,058	57,360	60,917	1,793	1,776	1,176	1,173	815
Buckingham . . .	21,929	457	119	13,933	8,424	2,844	56,208	61,442	1,774	1,746	1,186	1,326	962
Cambridge . . .	17,232	257	93	12,831	5,303	2,888	50,756	50,353	1,661	1,651	1,078	1,093	833
Chester . . .	41,187	1,239	250	16,396	23,043	5,063	110,841	116,190	3,447	3,199	2,466	2,535	1,785
Cornwall . . .	37,971	1,400	440	17,465	10,954	15,770	103,310	113,357	3,504	3,321	1,890	1,716	1,531
Cumberland . . .	24,002	550	130	10,868	11,448	6,074	63,433	70,311	1,965	2,001	1,199	1,260	1,040
Derby . . .	35,658	1,196	222	14,283	15,825	7,332	91,494	93,993	2,682	2,699	1,790	1,856	1,383
Devon . . .	62,318	2,475	766	33,044	30,977	15,394	179,553	203,755	6,145	5,665	3,741	3,794	2,745
Dorset . . .	23,210	841	171	12,982	9,607	4,232	57,717	66,976	1,796	1,657	1,053	1,142	871
Durham . . .	29,033	890	152	10,288	17,094	11,906	83,671	93,954	2,778	2,617	1,819	1,876	1,262
Essex . . .	42,829	1,012	255	28,517	14,182	8,944	124,839	127,634	3,792	3,678	2,807	2,531	1,892
Gloucester . . .	52,042	1,998	782	20,782	29,988	11,322	133,192	152,322	3,860	3,768	2,304	2,184	2,330
Hereford . . .	18,572	724	154	12,599	5,044	2,438	46,404	47,669	1,353	1,503	853	832	633
Hertford . . .	20,345	456	131	11,998	7,192	3,554	55,023	56,631	1,665	1,574	996	1,016	614
Huntingdon . . .	7,566	153	23	5,361	2,205	1,242	20,402	21,806	613	591	446	404	357
Kent . . .	62,063	1,671	628	27,077	27,996	21,192	183,500	189,595	6,538	6,295	5,653	4,174	3,405
Lancaster . . .	144,283	4,269	807	23,305	114,522	24,072	394,104	434,205	13,768	13,187	8,748	8,995	7,809
Leicester . . .	30,019	650	212	11,700	17,027	2,753	73,366	77,053	2,034	2,024	1,366	1,370	1,206
Lincoln . . .	46,368	1,099	276	29,881	13,184	7,839	117,022	120,869	3,963	3,857	2,736	2,784	1,898
Middlesex . . .	130,613	4,326	2,811	9,088	135,398	77,524	434,633	518,643	11,859	11,701	11,370	11,026	10,666
Monmouth . . .	11,766	361	158	5,815	4,812	1,916	30,987	31,140	692	632	514	444	416
Norfolk . . .	51,776	1,031	275	31,454	23,082	8,279	138,088	153,910	4,741	4,671	2,800	2,920	2,364
Northampton . . .	28,318	539	138	15,235	12,100	3,525	68,279	73,074	1,973	1,896	1,276	1,323	1,090
Northumberland . . .	28,258	1,126	168	10,945	16,547	10,251	80,385	91,776	2,109	2,049	1,582	1,521	1,201
Nottingham . . .	31,344	954	164	12,293	18,928	2,293	79,057	83,843	2,407	2,386	1,791	1,787	1,372
Oxford . . .	22,702	499	116	13,646	7,655	3,705	59,132	60,059	1,804	1,753	1,137	1,210	865
Rutland . . .	3,325	77	15	2,025	1,028	505	7,931	8,449	247	222	145	153	113
Salop . . .	35,506	1,129	219	16,693	16,744	6,022	95,842	98,456	2,866	2,686	1,790	1,649	1,390
Somerset . . .	52,462	1,672	653	27,472	23,732	11,739	141,449	161,731	4,236	4,085	2,808	2,942	2,238
Southampton . . .	43,210	1,030	441	21,401	18,024	11,491	118,855	126,225	4,109	4,020	2,897	2,718	2,512
Stafford . . .	55,080	1,537	423	18,361	34,011	10,165	148,073	147,080	4,965	4,639	3,255	3,336	2,679
Suffolk . . .	37,227	624	155	26,406	15,180	6,048	111,988	122,223	3,649	3,390	2,199	2,119	1,738
Surrey . . .	55,434	1,690	1,360	12,417	25,160	24,982	151,811	172,040	4,455	4,403	3,976	3,707	2,578
Sussex . . .	29,561	1,119	288	19,778	10,754	5,482	94,188	95,895	3,356	3,231	2,075	1,772	1,525
Warwick . . .	44,940	909	308	15,131	29,775	4,160	109,539	119,196	3,300	3,218	2,956	3,048	2,015
Westmoreland . . .	8,736	283	45	4,613	2,870	1,923	22,838	23,084	747	758	412	423	376
Wilts . . .	37,244	1,037	234	22,657	14,857	4,330	91,560	102,268	2,756	2,538	1,630	1,816	1,318
Worcester . . .	30,206	804	256	13,818	16,865	3,441	78,032	82,513	2,537	2,483	1,790	1,945	1,275
York . . .	188,381	5,099	1,082	61,955	110,312	33,411	477,728	495,385	15,557	14,577	9,734	9,759	8,461
WALES.	1,678,106	47,925	15,188	697,353	923,588	391,450	4,575,763	4,963,064	144,508	138,922	100,092	98,326	80,143
Counties:													
Anglesea . . .	7,183	108	72	5,376	1,453	877	17,444	19,601	495	485	198	199	265
Brecon . . .	7,555	354	97	4,667	2,239	1,013	18,507	19,228	425	402	350	356	304
Cardigan . . .	9,639	155	129	5,864	1,913	3,519	23,759	26,501	671	570	256	280	376
Carmarthen . . .	14,856	333	113	9,878	5,256	949	36,080	41,137	813	729	503	565	566
Carnarvon . . .	9,369	154	102	6,667	2,687	833	23,379	25,957	743	626	348	376	385
Denbigh . . .	13,078	281	96	7,973	3,447	2,283	31,129	33,111	987	964	677	682	451
Flint . . .	8,816	155	51	4,086	3,009	2,645	22,712	23,806	845	706	430	490	259
Glamorgan . . .	17,017	741	102	8,217	7,915	2,563	41,365	43,702	990	942	736	714	595
Merioneth . . .	6,022	115	33	3,619	1,270	1,928	14,308	16,616	398	343	249	259	186
Montgomery . . .	9,349	174	40	6,369	3,164	772	25,373	26,558	723	700	506	465	341
Pembroke . . .	12,468	406	154	7,189	2,848	2,900	27,453	33,162	654	611	364	381	449
Radnor . . .	4,046	119	30	2,941	843	584	10,124	10,776	339	262	198	184	150
Continued . . .	1,797,504	51,020	16,207	770,199	959,632	412,316	4,867,596	5,283,219	152,591	146,262	104,907	103,277	84,470

* The above number of *Entered Baptisms, Burials, and Marriages*, is according to the latest Returns (for 1810) presented to Parliament:—The annual average number of *Unentered Baptisms, Burials, and Marriages*, as per the same Returns, is as follows:—England. 13,386 Baptisms. 9,790 Burials. 195 Marriages. Wales. 1,474 Baptisms. 566 Burials.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE POPULATION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND;

Comprising the Number of *Houses, Families, Males and Females, Baptisms, Burials, and Marriages*, in every County in Great Britain, and in the Metropolis, and, generally, in Ireland, including the *Army, Navy, Marines, and Seamen in Registered Vessels*.—From Authentic Documents, presented to Parliament, and ordered by the House of Commons to be printed, 2nd July, 1812.

	HOUSES.			FAMILIES.			POPULATION.		BAPTISMS.		BURIALS.		MAR- RIAGES.
	Inhabited.	Uninhabited.	Houses building.	Families chiefly employed in Agriculture.	Families chiefly employed in Trade, Manufactures, and Handicraft.	Families not comprised in the two preceding classes.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
<i>Continued.</i>	1,797,504	51,020	16,207	770,199	959,632	412,316	4,867,396	5,283,219	152,591	146,262	104,907	103,277	84,470
SCOTLAND.													
Shires:													
Aberdeen . . .	26,000	745	206	13,637	14,286	5,795	60,159	74,916					
Argyll . . .	15,240	1,602	119	8,421	3,419	5,528	40,675	44,910					
Ayr . . .	15,407	321	141	5,285	11,354	4,755	48,506	55,448					
Banff . . .	8,043	223	63	8,815	2,195	2,602	16,465	20,203					
Berwick . . .	5,730	308	35	3,124	2,013	1,730	14,466	16,313					
Bute . . .	2,047	38	2	1,214	530	874	5,545	6,488					
Caithness . . .	4,301	139	45	3,270	838	606	10,608	12,811					
Clackmanan . . .	1,995	19	15	280	893	1,608	5,715	6,295					
Dumbarton . . .	3,218	90	28	1,123	2,689	1,122	11,369	12,820					
Dumfries . . .	11,660	299	119	3,862	4,435	4,667	29,347	33,613					
Edinburgh . . .	15,789	1,167	143	3,594	13,254	16,195	65,004	83,603					
Elgin . . .	6,268	197	93	2,635	1,886	2,333	12,401	15,707					
Fife . . .	17,518	583	137	5,073	15,564	5,715	45,968	55,304					
Forfar . . .	16,135	505	124	4,980	13,616	6,154	48,151	59,113					
Haddington . . .	5,882	500	32	3,130	2,355	1,922	14,232	16,932					
Inverness . . .	14,646	215	90	9,594	3,294	3,126	35,722	42,614	† 27,144	26,018	18,661	18,371	15,026
Kincardine . . .	5,718	283	48	3,071	2,059	1,219	12,580	14,859					
Kinross . . .	1,364	53	21	428	640	612	3,466	3,779					
Kirkcudbright . . .	6,223	196	84	2,662	1,885	2,833	15,788	17,896					
Lanark . . .	32,040	1,184	169	5,387	27,672	9,451	88,688	103,064					
Linlithgow . . .	3,098	186	30	1,132	1,506	1,766	8,874	10,577					
Nairn . . .	1,946	68	17	870	341	810	3,530	4,721					
Orkney & Shetland . . .	8,230	101	16	6,583	1,218	1,237	20,151	26,002					
Peebles . . .	1,740	72	8	875	610	476	4,846	5,089					
Perth . . .	26,404	886	165	8,528	11,721	9,749	64,034	71,059					
Renfrew . . .	8,224	142	38	1,847	15,959	1,992	41,960	50,636					
Ross & Cromarty . . .	12,829	292	159	7,490	2,499	3,585	27,640	33,213					
Roxburgh . . .	6,423	243	52	3,763	2,487	2,124	17,113	20,117					
Selkirk . . .	1,080	35	6	500	363	395	2,750	3,159					
Stirling . . .	8,910	414	55	2,425	5,912	4,189	27,745	30,429					
Surherland . . .	4,814	42	26	3,726	421	697	10,488	13,141					
Wigtown . . .	5,166	181	55	3,375	1,503	985	12,205	14,686					
Great Britain	2,101,597	62,349	18,548	895,998	1,129,049	519,168	5,693,587	6,262,716	179,735	172,280	123,568	121,648	99,496
Ireland *	790,979	23,466	6,980	337,227	424,940	195,399	2,142,898	2,357,102	67,646	64,841	46,507	45,784	37,447
Totals	2,892,576	85,815	25,528	1,233,225	1,553,989	714,567	7,836,485	8,619,818	247,381	237,121	170,075	167,432	136,943

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

HOUSES:— . . . In England 1,726,031. In Wales 122,493. In Scotland 315,422. In Ireland 814,445. Total 2,978,391.

HOUSES building:— Idem . . . 15,188. . Idem . . . 1,019. . Idem . . . 2,341. . Idem . . . 6,980. Total . . . 25,528.

FAMILIES:— . . . Idem . . . 2,012,391. . Idem . . . 129,756. . Idem . . . 402,068. . Idem . . . 957,566. Total 3,501,781.

POPULATION . . . Idem . . . 9,538,827. . Idem . . . 611,788. . Idem . . . 1,805,688. . Idem . . . 4,500,000. } Army, Navy, Marines, and Seamen, in Registered Vessels 640,500. Total 17,096,803 Souls.

BAPTISMS:— . . . Idem . . . 283,430. . Idem . . . 15,423. . Idem . . . 53,162. . Idem . . . 132,487. Total 484,502.

BURIALS:— . . . Idem . . . 198,418. . Idem . . . 9,766. . Idem . . . 37,032. . Idem . . . 92,291. Total 337,507.

MARRIAGES:— . . . Idem . . . 80,143. . Idem . . . 4,327. . Idem . . . 15,026. . Idem . . . 37,447. Total 136,943.

THE METROPOLIS.

	City of London within the Walls	City of London without the Walls, not including Southwark.	City and Liberties of Westminster.	Out-Parishes in Middlesex and Surrey, including Southwark.	Parishes not within the London Bills of Mortality, but forming Part of the Metropolis.	Totals.
HOUSES:—Inhabited . . .	8,158	9,255	17,555	87,974	18,790	141,732
Uninhabited . . .	269	189	547	2,927	645	4,577
Building . . .	22	39	67	1,838	1,155	3,121
FAMILIES . . .	11,649	15,448	38,160	140,944	35,839	242,040
POPULATION:—Males . . .	29,782	34,252	81,053	280,375	72,273	497,735
Females . . .	27,918	33,748	87,547	313,325	89,727	552,265
BAPTISMS:—Males . . .	577	1,399	2,380	6,386	1,711	12,453
Females . . .	587	1,421	2,199	6,349	1,662	12,218
BURIALS:—Males . . .	710	1,013	2,632	6,224	1,845	12,424
Females . . .	618	994	2,412	6,348	1,856	12,228
MARRIAGES . . .	1,139	1,113	2,939	5,195	1,339	11,725

SUMMARY OF THE METROPOLIS.

Houses—146,309.
Houses building—3,121.
Families—242,040.
Population—1,050,000 Souls.
Baptisms—24,671.
Burials—24,652.
Marriages—11,725.

† There being few Registers kept in Scotland, no Returns have been made of the Baptisms, Burials, and Marriages; they are therefore taken in proportion to those of England and Wales.

* As no Return as yet has been made of the Census for Ireland, it is here presumed to contain 4,500,000 Inhabitants; estimating the Number of *Houses, Families, Males and Females, Baptisms, Burials, and Marriages*, in proportion to those of Great Britain. There are good grounds to believe that it will be found to exceed 5,000,000.

§ Exclusive of the Army, Navy, Marines, and Seamen in Registered Vessels, which are mentioned in the Summary Recapitulation.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE POPULATION OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE;

Shewing the Number of *Inhabitants* in the United Kingdom of *Great Britain and Ireland*, and its *Colonies and Dependencies* in Europe, America, Africa and Asia, including the *East India Company's Territorial Possessions*, the Army, Navy, Marines, and Seamen in the Merchants' Service;—Distinguishing the Number of *Europeans, Free Persons of Colour, and Negro Labourers*:—Also, the Number of Men in Arms in the British Empire.—As established from various Authentic Documents and from the best accessible Information on the Subject where no Documents exist. (1812.)

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

England	(See Page 43.)	9,538,827	SOULS. ‡ 16,456,303
Wales	(See Idem).	611,788	
Scotland	(See Page 45.)	1,805,688	
Ireland	(See Idem)	4,500,000	

DEPENDENCIES IN EUROPE:—(See Table No. 7.)

Isle of Man	30,000	180,300
Scilly Islands	1,000	
Guernsey	15,000	
Jersey	20,000	
Alderney	1,000	
Sark	300	
Gibraltar*	16,000	
Malta, including Goza	94,000	
Heligoland	3,000	

COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES IN AMERICA, viz.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA:—(See Table, No. 8.)

Canada	300,000
New Brunswick	60,000
Nova Scotia	100,000
Cape Breton	3,000
St. John's, or Prince Edward's Island	5,000
Newfoundland	18,000
Hudson's Bay	146

BRITISH WEST INDIA COLONIES:—(See Table, No. 9.)

486,146

	Europeans.	Free Persons of Colour.	Negro Labourers.
Jamaica	30,000	10,000	350,000
Barbadoes	15,000	3,000	59,506
Antigua	3,200	1,400	36,000
St. Vincent	1,280	1,172	27,156
St. Christophers	1,200	500	30,000
Montserrat	444	200	10,000
Nevis	500	250	15,000
Virgin Islands	300	400	10,000
Grenada	800	1,600	32,603
Dominica	800	1,500	24,000
Trinidad	2,700	8,559	21,831
Bahamas	3,600	3,300	10,000
Bermudas	5,000	200	5,000
Honduras	170	1,000	3,000

CONQUERED WEST INDIA COLONIES:—

(See Table, No. 10) Tobago	470	250	17,000
St. Lucia	500	350	24,000
St. Martins	350	250	3,500
Martinique	10,000	6,000	54,000
Guadaloupe	12,500	7,500	67,500
Mariegalante	400	800	8,000
Surinam	3,186	2,889	60,000
Berbice	1,000	600	25,000
Demarara and Essequibo	4,000	2,500	70,000
Curaçoa	400	2,000	5,000
St. Eustatia	100	250	1,800
St. Croix	2,223	1,164	28,000
St. Thomas	550	1,500	3,000
St. John's	150	200	6,000

Total—West Indies

100,823	59,334	1,006,896	1,167,053	1,653,199
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Continued 18,289,802

† Exclusive of the Army, Navy, &c. which, being in different parts of the World, are mentioned at the foot of the Statement.
* Exclusive of the Garrison.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE POPULATION OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE;

Shewing the Number of *Inhabitants* in the United Kingdom of *Great Britain and Ireland*, and its *Colonies and Dependencies*, in *Europe*, *America*, *Africa*, and *Asia*, including the *East India Company's Territorial Possessions*, the *Army*, *Navy*, *Marines*, and *Seamen* in the *Merchants' Service*;—Distinguishing the Number of *Europeans*, *Free Persons of Colour*, and *Negro Labourers*:—Also the Number of *Men in Arms* in the *British Empire*.—As established from various *Authentic Documents*, and from the best accessible *Information* on the *Subject* where no *Documents* exist.—(1812.)

SETTLEMENTS IN AFRICA:—(See Table, No. 10.)

	White Persons.	Free Persons of Colour.	Continued
Senegal and its Dependencies	600	3,400	
Goree	50	3,000	
Sierra Leone	28	1,899	
Cape of Good Hope	20,000	100,000	
	20,678	108,299	

SOULS.
18,289,802

128,977

COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES IN ASIA, viz.

	White Persons.	Negro Labourers.	Miscellaneous Persons.	Totals.
New South Wales and its Dependencies, (See Table, No. 11.)	59			
Ceylon (See Table, No. 12.)	6,000		800,00	
Isle of Bourbon (See Idem)	16,400	70,450	3,496	
Isle of France (See Idem)	17,000	70,000		
Java and its Dependencies (See Idem)	12,000		1,000,000	
	61,059	140,450	1,807,496	2,009,005

EAST INDIA COMPANY'S TERRITORIAL POSSESSIONS:—(See Table, No. 14, A.)

	Europeans.	Natives.	
Bengal	2,035	29,010,968	
Madras	743	10,800,974	
Bombay	640	60,018	
Fort Marlbro' Bencoolen	69		
Prince of Wales's Island	101	18,402	
Canton	23		
St. Helena	1,522	2,000	
The Army† and Marine in India	20,113	140,800	
	25,246	40,033,162	40,058,408

42,067,413

ARMY, NAVY, MARINES, AND SEAMEN IN REGISTERED VESSEL, as per Returns to Parliament in 1811. 640,500
 FOREIGN CORPS in the British Service, as per "Estimates presented to the House of Commons of Army Services for 1812." 30,741

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

Grand Total 61,157,433

AGGREGATE POPULATION
OF THE
BRITISH EMPIRE.

	Souls.	Europeans.	Free Persons of Colour.	Negro Labourers.	Total of Souls.
Great Britain and Ireland, exclusive of the Army, Navy, &c.		16,456,303			16,456,303
Colonies and Dependencies in Europe		180,300			180,300
Idem Idem in America, viz.:—					
British Possessions in North America		486,146			
British West India Colonies		64,994	33,081	63,096	
Conquered West India Colonies		35,829	26,253	372,800	1,653,199
Settlements in Africa		20,678	108,299		128,977
Colonies and Dependencies in Asia		61,059	1,807,496	140,450	2,009,005
East India Company's Territorial Possessions		* 25,246	* 40,033,162		40,058,408
Army, Navy, Marines, and Seamen in Registered Vessels, } including Foreign Corps in the British Service }		671,241			671,241
Totals		18,001,796	42,008,291	1,147,346	61,157,433

MEN IN ARMS IN THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

LAND FORCES:—British Army	301,000	
Local Militia in Great Britain	196,446	
Volunteers in Great Britain	88,000	
Militia and Yeomanry in Ireland	80,000	Men in Arms.
Militia and Fencibles in the Colonies about	25,000	
Foreign Corps in the British Service	30,741	— 721,187
SEA FORCES:—Navy	147,252	
Marines	32,668	— 179,920
EAST INDIA COMPANY'S SERVICE:—British Forces † in India	20,000	
Native Army Idem	140,000	
Marine Idem	913	— 160,913
Total	1,062,020	

† It appears from "Estimates presented to the House of Commons, of Army Services for the year 1812," (pages 14 and 16) that the charge for the year ending the 24th December 1812, is estimated on 5 Regiments of Dragoons and 19 Battalions of Foot, consisting of 28,161 Men, including Commissioned and Non-commissioned Officers, but as these are not always complete, and as it appears there are 485 men, belonging to these Corps, stationed in Great Britain for the purpose of recruiting for the Company's Service, the effective Force in their Territorial Possessions may be fairly taken at 17,000; and 3000 European Officers, commanding the Native Army. Total 20,000. To this number is to be added, those composing the Native Army and the Marine in India, as per Table No. 14, A.

In the Territories in the immediate Possession of the East India Company, as, the Presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, including the Prince of Wales's Island, and the Island of St. Helena, and the Establishments at Canton, and Fort Marlbro' Bencoolen.

CHAPTER II.

AN ATTEMPT TO ESTIMATE THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE PROPERTY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, WITH THE COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES OF THE CROWN (FIFTY-THREE IN NUMBER), INCLUDING ALSO THE BRITISH TERRITORIES UNDER THE MANAGEMENT AND CONTROL OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.

The Causes of the increase of the Wealth of the British Empire explained.—The security of Property when once acquired.—The rapid increase of Property within the last Twenty Years —The difficulty of forming an Estimate of the whole Property.—An approximation is all that can be expected, since it will be sufficient to tranquillize the public mind.—The peculiar advantages which the British nation possesses over other Countries in acquiring Wealth by the diffusion of Property and by the resources which exist for the profitable employment of Capitals.—In Agriculture at Home and in the Colonies.—In Commerce, Shipping, and Manufactures.—A general View of the real and personal Property of the British Empire estimated at £4,081,530,895 Sterling, including the British Territories in the East Indies and Captured Colonies.—General Observations on the Causes from which the growing Prosperity and Wealth of the Nation are to be traced.—Observations on the public Property of the Nation—Concluding Remarks on the exalted state of the British Empire.

IN all civilized countries the individuals comprising the body politic are distinguished from the population in savage life by the wealth or property which they possess, and which is more or less rendered secure by the power and efficacy of the Law. In the British dominions this security is more firmly established than perhaps in any country in the world. The protection thus afforded to every species of property, acquired in a course of ages, has given a spring or impetus to industry, which has certainly never been equalled in any other nation or empire in ancient or modern times.

An æra has arrived in the affairs of the British Empire, discovering resources which have excited the wonder, the astonishment, and perhaps the envy of the civilized world. The accumulation of property, extensive beyond all credibility, and (during a war of unexampled expence) rapid in its growth beyond what the most sanguine mind could have conceived, renders it an interesting subject of inquiry with a view to discover the nature, extent, and component parts of the property of the British dominions, by which the nation has been placed in so elevated a situation in the scale of Europe.

In contemplating the affairs of nations, it will be found that the same principles and rules will apply as those to which individuals resort on all emergencies, where, in extensive and complicated transactions, recourse is had to an accurate view of the resources in possession and to the means of rendering these resources as productive as possible.

The resources of nations are derived from the productive labour of the people; and this labour is augmented or diminished according to forms of government, and the intelligence, ability, and zeal,—or the want of these qualities in those to whom it is assigned to direct the affairs of states and empires.

When the limited population and territory of the British islands are considered in relation to many other states and kingdoms in the world, it is fair to conclude that, the rapid strides which this nation has made in the course of the last and present century towards wealth and power may fairly be imputed to the form of its government, and the wisdom of its councils.

It is by no means however to be inferred that the government is either in its nature absolutely perfect, or that the councils of this as well as other nations have not erred on many occasions. It is the lot of humanity to err. It is sufficient to say that it possesses advantages over all other governments, and that the purity of those intrusted with the highest offices of the state greatly exceeds those in similar situations in other countries.

It is scarcely necessary to enter into details for the purpose of proving that the prosperity of the British nation has been rapid beyond all example, particularly within the last sixty years, notwithstanding the calamities of four successive wars of unexampled expence. Opposed until recently not only by a most formidable and inveterate enemy, but also through his machinations and the influence of his conquests by all the most powerful nations of Europe; yet with a population which cannot be estimated at more than between seventeen and eighteen millions, this country has stood the shock against a population of more than one hundred millions, while it has possessed itself of all the colonies and territories of the enemy which are not continental, besides annihilating, or at least rendering useless the once numerous and powerful navies of all the belligerent powers in Europe.

It becomes an interesting enquiry, by what means these great and extraordinary

events have taken place. Who could have supposed that from sixty to seventy millions of money have been raised annually, exclusive of loans, for the expences of the state, in the last three years, with much greater ease than thirty millions could have been raised twenty years ago?—Who could have believed it possible that the surplus property of individuals could have furnished successive loans to government from year to year during the last twenty years to the amount of about £453,617,455 sterling*, and that still competitors exist eager to grasp at new loans?—Was it possible to conceive that the nation should be able to sustain a burthen now equal to £22,680,872 sterling additional interest on the national debt since the war of the French revolution first commenced, besides raising a fund during this period, and redeeming the land tax for the reduction of the national debt equal to about £156,636,746, and that under all this pressure the increase of individual opulence has been progressive and rapid, while the comforts of the middling and lower classes of the community, if they have not increased, have certainly not diminished?

This paradox can only be solved by attributing it to the progressive and growing opulence of the country. Or in other words, that the surplus savings beyond the actual expenditure of the property, created by the labour of the people in each year, has been more than equal to the demands of government for the exigencies of the state.

Notwithstanding these prominent features, exhibiting in strong colours the power, wealth, and resources of the empire, great uneasiness has been excited in consequence of the rapidity with which the national debt has been increased, under an apprehension that there is a point beyond which the resources of the country cannot be extended, and that a general bankruptcy must ensue.

To discover how far these apprehensions are well or ill founded, it will be here necessary to do that which has never heretofore been done, namely to see what these resources are—of what elements they consist, and to estimate their value upon the same principle as commercial men estimate their stock in trade,—in fine, to examine, as accurately as the nature of the case will permit, the value of that property which is pledged for the security of the national debt and the annual revenue arising from it.

The attempt is bold, and the task is arduous. It is a ground that has not been heretofore at least systematically trod; while in the nature of things accuracy to a point in so extensive and complicated a range is impracticable. Yet if the labour which has been bestowed in the investigation of this extensive and important subject shall be found to approximate to the truth, or shall rather be within the truth (which is what has been throughout the aim of the Author), the advantages resulting from the important details in the interesting Table No. 2, annexed to this Chapter, will be incalculable, since under all the unexampled pressures arising from a long protracted war, generating an enormous public debt, these details will tend in an eminent degree to tranquillize the public mind;

* Calculated to the 5th of January, 1813.

producing a confidence in the power and the resources of the country beyond any other nation in the world, while at the same time they tend to cherish a well grounded hope that this great nation is equal to any exigency which may occur in consequence of the complicated and extensive wars which have so long afflicted the world.

It is with nations as it is with individuals who are in the train of acquiring property. At first the progress is slow until a certain amount is obtained, after which, as wealth has a creative power under skilful and judicious management, the accumulation becomes more and more rapid, increasing often beyond a geometrical ratio, expanding in all directions, diffusing its influence wherever talents and industry prevail, and thereby extending the resources by which riches are obtained by communicating the power of acquiring it to thousands, who must have remained without wealth in countries less opulent.

And hence it is, that in proportion to the population of Great Britain and Ireland and the Colonies there will be found a much greater number of individuals possessing wealth than in any other country in Europe:—and the result is, that there are more labourers possessing the means of acquiring riches and the power of communicating aid to others who have not yet acquired it.

The insular situation of the British nation, affording great scope for commercial enterprise,—the advantages derived from the salubrity of the climate, and in general from the fertility of the soil, joined to the benefits conferred by the richer and more valuable productions of the tropical colonies, combined with the immense and almost incalculable sources of industry which have burst upon the country by the improvements in manufactures and ingenious machinery,—all contribute in affording profitable employment for the capitals which are in the progress of accumulation; while this industry has acquired, and will continue to acquire, considerable aid from the funding system, which will hereafter be explained in its proper place.

From these combined causes are to be traced the splendid view, which is now attempted to be given, of the public and private property of the British Empire at the present period.

In forming the estimates which are exhibited in the Tables annexed, the ablest writers on this branch of political economy have been consulted, and copious notes have been introduced, calculated to elucidate as far as elucidation has been practicable, the grounds upon which the Author has proceeded. From the paucity however of materials much has been left to the exertion of the mind and to laborious and intricate calculations, where information could not be derived from books or public documents.

As the estimates extend to national and individual property in every quarter of the world where the British flag flies; from such a mass of information brought within so narrow a compass, where every table may be considered as in itself a history, a confident hope is entertained that they cannot fail to prove highly interesting to every British subject, contemplating as he must do the power and resources of the empire with exultation; while to foreign nations it must prove a matter of wonder and astonishment, calculated to produce

the most exalted ideas of the wealth, power, and grandeur of the British Empire ;—since these estimates shew

1st. That the value of landed and other public and private property in Great Britain and Ireland in sterling money amounts to	£2,736,640,000
2d. That the - - idem - - idem in 9 Dependencies in Europe	idem 22,161,330
3d. That the - - idem - - idem in 7 Colonies and Settlements in North America	idem 46,575,360
4th. That the - - idem - - idem in 14 Colonies and Settlements in the West Indies,	idem 100,014,864
5th. That the - - idem - - idem in 14 Conquered Colonies in the West Indies	idem 75,220,000
6th. That the - - idem - - idem in 4 Settlements in Africa	idem 4,770,500
7th. That the - - idem - - idem in 5 Settlements and Colonies in Asia	idem 38,721,090
Total Colonies and Dependencies 53	£3,009,103,144
8th. That the territory of India under the control and management of the East India Company, when the estimated value of the lands in cultivation is added to the public and private property, cannot amount to less than	1,072,427,751
Total estimated value of the landed and public and private property of the British Empire in all parts of the world.*	£4,081,530,895

Of this immense property the Colonies and Dependencies taken from the enemy during the present war, exclusive of ships and other floating property captured since 1792, amount by estimate to £106,917,190! The captures on sea and land may probably amount to fifty or sixty millions more.

Such are the resources which the subjects of His Majesty in every part of the British Empire possess by which property may be acquired. The parent state however enjoys (as she ought to do since she bears the burthen) great advantages over all the dependencies of the Crown; which is rendered manifest by the pecuniary aids which she affords for the

* The rise and progress of the territorial possessions under the Government of the East India Company in Asia are detailed at great length in the Appendix, to which the Reader is particularly referred for a brief chronological history of these interesting occurrences and five concise statements of the Company's affairs, and an abstract of their new Charter in 1813. In a Table annexed to this Chapter, an estimate is attempted of the property, public and private, of the East India possessions, with explanatory notes. This estimate is formed upon the same principle as those which relate to the Colonies and Dependencies of the Crown; and although taken very low, yet from the vast population of 40,000,000 of people, and the immense extent of the territory, it is found to extend to the enormous amount of £1,072,427,751 sterling money.

The trade of the British possessions in India to Europe, including the trade with China, amounts,	} £8,401,353
according to the Parliamentary Documents in Exports and Imports, to	
And the trade with Asia, or what is called the Country Trade, amounts in Exports and Imports to	15,516,605
Total	£23,917,958

A sufficient proof of the opulence of the country, even in its present state, which may be said to be almost in its infancy. Its progress however has been rapid under the new system established by the able management of the Board of Control and the Direction; and there is every reason to expect that this great country will advance to a degree of opulence which is almost incalculable. It is indeed impossible to conceive what the efforts of a mild government, founded in wisdom and directed by talents, will produce on a people of simple manners and disposed to be industrious, when they see it clearly ascertained that whatever property they acquire is secured to them, while they are defended against the inroads of nations under other Governments less just, whose system of warfare has been rapine, devastation, and plunder.

exigencies of the State with an ease and facility, and to an extent which astonishes the civilized world.*

If the cause is attentively examined which has produced this extraordinary effect, it will be found in the growing prosperity of the nation, commencing about the year 1787, since which period, but particularly during the last fifteen years, the progress has been most rapid. In agriculture, considerable advances have been made, by new discoveries and improvements in economizing labour and in ameliorating the soil, so as to render it more productive.

In every species of manufacture the improvements have been still more extensive. Ingenious machinery, applicable almost to every purpose of productive industry, have at an enormous expence been erected in every part of the country, not only giving force and efficacy to the labour of man, but in producing valuable articles of commerce from raw materials in many instances of comparatively little value, matured into marketable articles, comprising masses of property to an immense value, created to a considerable extent by inanimated mechanical organizations requiring neither *rest, food, or wages*.

Through this medium the national property has acquired a gradual and rapid augmentation, affording collateral aid to agriculture not only by the increased consumption of the produce of the soil, but by the surplus capitals which have been generated by this species of industry and turned to the cultivation and improvement of the land, which has also acquired additional impetus from the capitals of individuals, returning yearly from the East Indies and other countries, invested in landed and other property.

In fact, nearly the whole produce of the Colonies and extensive Dependencies of the Crown may be said to center in the parent State. From these and other sources may be traced the vast accumulation of houses built in the metropolis, and other parts of Great Britain and Ireland†;—and the vast influx of wealth, arising from improved agriculture, from mines, minerals, manufactures, commerce, navigation, and shipping;—we may fur-

* After a war of twenty years, during which period a public debt, funded and unfunded, of £453,617,455 in sterling money has been incurred up to January 1813, in addition to immense sums raised by the War Taxes on Trade and the Property Tax on individuals, estimated during ten years at about £200,000,000 more, the facility with which a loan of £42,000,000 was obtained in 1813, when it might reasonably be supposed the country was exhausted and its resources crippled by the numerous bankruptcies and the obstructions to commercial enterprise, *is truly astonishing*; while it exhibits another strong proof of the vast opulence of the country, and its growing prosperity under every difficulty and distress which the nature and extent of the war had brought upon the people. Within the present year an additional loan of £22,000,000 sterling has been obtained with even greater facility than the former, making in the whole £64,000,000 sterling in the course of the year 1813!

† According to the Census for Great Britain in 1811, the number of houses amounted to	2,163,946
And the houses building in	18,548
	<u>2,182,494</u>
The houses returned by the Census of 1801	1,937,489
Increase of houses in 10 years	<u><u>245,005</u></u>

ther trace the increased value of the national property in profitable machinery, inland navigations, bridges, docks, and other valuable and productive erections. To which may be added, the vast augmentation of the value of landed property, rendered exceedingly more productive in consequence of the capitals employed in improvements, assisted and stimulated by the new discoveries which have been made in the science of agriculture.

In manufactures the progress has been even more rapid. New improvements and valuable discoveries have given a new and progressive value to these inestimable establishments, which for the last twenty years have added so much to the national wealth.

The increase of wealth is rendered no less manifest by the great augmentation of commercial shipping and the vast capitals employed in navigation, as exhibited in the Tables annexed, being facts well established from public documents, which shew that notwithstanding the exclusion of British shipping from the continental ports of Europe, and the necessity of employing foreign ships in the exports and imports to and from foreign countries, the British shipping, which amounted in 1801 to 1,725,949 tons, had increased to 2,163,094 tons in 1812. Had the trade been open, this increase would probably have now been double the present amount.

The immense sums expended in barracks, fortifications, docks, arsenals, ships of war, and military and ordnance stores have greatly augmented the value of the public property, which is estimated on what is presumed to exist at the present time at not above one fourth of the actual cost.

Upon the whole, a confident hope is entertained, that on the strictest examination the aggregate property of the British empire, amounting to the enormous sum of £4,081,530,895, will be found to fall considerably short of its real value.

It exhibits in glowing colours the proud height to which this great empire has arrived in the scale of nations. It proves incontestably the incalculable resources of the State, and the rapid growth of the wealth of the people. And what is of more importance, the facility and power of rendering this wealth productive to a greater extent than prevails in any other nation in the world.

AN ATTEMPT TO ESTIMATE THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE PROPERTY IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND;

Being the Result of much Consideration, after consulting the ablest Writers on Political Economy, and the latest Authorities that bear upon the Subject. (1812)

	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	Great Britain and Ireland.
PRODUCTIVE PRIVATE PROPERTY.				
Lands cultivated in Grain of all sorts, Grass, Hops, Nurseries, Gardens, &c. (A)	£ 750,400,000	£ 150,080,000	£ 300,160,000	£ 1,200,640,000
Tithes belonging to the Laity, exclusive of those in possession of the Clergy. (B)	80,000,000	†	†	80,000,000
Mines, and Minerals. (C)	68,000,000	5,000,000	2,000,000	75,000,000
Canals, Tolls, and Timber. (D)	46,000,000	2,000,000	2,000,000	50,000,000
Dwelling Houses, not included in the Rent of Lands, including Warehouses, and Manufactories. (E)	300,000,000	50,000,000	70,000,000	400,000,000
Manufactured Goods in progress to maturity, and in a finished state, deposited in Manufactories, Warehouses, and Shops for Sale. (F)	100,000,000	16,000,000	24,000,000	140,000,000
Foreign Merchandize, deposited in Warehouses, Shops, &c. either paid for, or virtually paid by Debts owing to this Country by Foreigners. (G)	33,000,000	4,000,000	3,000,000	40,000,000
British Shipping of every description, employed in Trade, including Vessels on the Stocks. (H)	20,000,000	4,000,000	3,000,000	27,000,000
Agricultural Property, consisting of Grain, Hay, Straw, Cheese, Butter, and other Productions of Farms, including Implements of Husbandry. (I)	30,000,000	5,000,000	10,000,000	45,000,000
Animals, viz. Horses, Horned Cattle, Sheep, Hogs, Goats, Asses, Deer, Wild Animals, and Poultry. (K)	113,000,000	20,000,000	50,000,000	183,000,000
Fisheries round the Coasts of Great Britain and Ireland, including inland Fisheries. (L)	3,000,000	3,500,000	3,500,000	10,000,000
	£ 1,543,400,000	239,580,000	467,660,000	2,250,640,000
UNPRODUCTIVE PRIVATE PROPERTY.				
Waste Lands at present unproductive, after excluding all such as are incapable of any improvement adequate to the Expence, including Ways and Waters. (M)	82,500,000	16,500,000	33,000,000	132,000,000
Household Furniture in Dwelling Houses. (N)	130,000,000	15,000,000	40,000,000	185,000,000
Wearing Apparel Idem (O)	16,000,000	1,600,000	3,200,000	20,800,000
Plate, Jewels, and other Ornamental Articles, in Dwelling Houses. (O)	34,000,000	3,400,000	6,800,000	44,200,000
Specie in Circulation and hoarded, viz. Gold, Silver, and Copper Coin, including Bank Dollars and Tokens. (P)	9,000,000	2,000,000	4,000,000	15,000,000
	£ 1,814,900,000	278,080,000	554,660,000	2,647,640,000
PUBLIC PROPERTY.				
Public Buildings, as Palaces, Churches, Hospitals, Prisons, Bridges, &c. (Q)	20,000,000	2,000,000	5,000,000	27,000,000
Public Arsenals, Castles, Forts, and all other places of Defence, with the Artillery, Stores, &c. thereto belonging. (R)	12,000,000	1,000,000	4,000,000	17,000,000
Dock Yards, and all Materials for Ship building and Repairs. (S)				10,000,000
Ships of War, in number about 1000, of which 261 are Ships of the Line, in Employment, including those in Ordinary and building. (T)				25,000,000
Military and Naval Ordnance, and other Public Stores. (U)				10,000,000
Totals, £	1,846,900,000	281,080,000	563,660,000	2,736,640,000

AGGREGATE VALUE OF PROPERTY

IN

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Productive Private Property . . .	£ 2,250,640,000
Unproductive . Idem	397,000,000
	2,647,640,000
Public Property	89,000,000
Total	£ 2,736,640,000

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

ENGLAND and WALES:—		£	£
Productive Private Property . . .	1,543,400,000		
Unproductive . Idem	271,500,000	—	1,814,900,000
SCOTLAND:—			
Productive Private Property . . .	239,580,000		
Unproductive . Idem	38,500,000	—	278,080,000
IRELAND:—			
Productive Private Property . . .	467,660,000		
Unproductive . Idem	87,000,000	—	554,660,000
PUBLIC PROPERTY:—			
In England and Wales	32,000,000		
In Scotland	3,000,000		
In Ireland	9,000,000		
In common to Great Britain and Ireland, as, the Navy, Military and Ordnance Stores, &c.	45,000,000	—	89,000,000
			Grand Total £ 2,736,640,000

† The Tithes for Scotland and Ireland are included in the Value of the Lands.

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

- (A) It appears from the Returns to the Tax Office for the Year ended the 5th April, 1804, that the Rental of *Real Property* in England and Wales, including Mines, Canals, &c. calculated on 37,334,400 Statute Acres, amounted to £38,000,000:—It is, however, known to have much increased since that Period. The cultivated Lands may be distributed as follows:—

	Acres.	£.
Gardens and Nurseries	about 20,000	at an Average of £70 per Acre . 1,400,000
Lands highly cultivated in the vicinity of large Towns	500,000	Idem . . £50 . . . 25,000,000
Hop Grounds	100,000	Idem . . £40 . . . 4,000,000
Lands cultivated of a superior quality	12,000,000	Idem . . £30 . . . 360,000,000
Lands cultivated of an inferior quality	18,000,000	Idem . . £20 . . . 360,000,000
Total of cultivated Lands in England and Wales		30,620,000 Acres, estimated at . . . £750,400,000 —Being an Average of somewhat more
The Lands cultivated, including Tythes, in Scotland, may be taken at 1-5th the Value		[than £24 per acre.
of the cultivated Lands in England and Wales.		. . . 150,080,000
The cultivated Lands, including Tythes, in Ireland,* at 2-5ths of the same Value . . .		. . . 300,160,000
Making a Total, for Great Britain and Ireland, of . . .		£1,200,640,000

The uncultivated Lands are mentioned in another place.

- (B) Dr. Beeke, in his "Observations on the Income Tax," (page 36) estimated the net Income derived from Tythes in South Britain at £2,500,000 a Year, and their Value, taken at 30 years purchase at £75,000,000. As this appears to be a very moderate Estimate, and as their value from the improvement in Lands is much enhanced since he wrote; it is conceived they may now be fairly taken at £80,000,000. The Tythes in Scotland and Ireland, as has been already observed, are included in the value of the Lands.
- (C) In England, the Coal, Tin, and Iron Mines, are not only numerous, but very valuable. The Lead Mines of Alston, on the Eastern boundary of Cumberland, are said to employ about 1100 Men. There are immense Mines of Rock Salt at Northwich in Cheshire, and some in other parts of the Kingdom, also mines of minor Metals—And Copper in great abundance at Anglesea in Wales. The Mines of Coal, Lead, Iron, and other Metals in Scotland, being of a good quality, cannot be valued at less than £5,000,000. The chief Mines in Ireland, are Iron and Copper; besides these, there are Mines of other Metals, not however produced in any great quantities, abundance of Slate, and some Coals.
- (D) As the Canals in England are so well known from their number and great extent, uniting by their inland Navigation the greatest Ports and Towns in the Kingdom, it were needless to enumerate them here; there are also several Navigations of considerable extent in the South of Wales. The Tolls from the increased number of New Roads and Travelling yield no inconsiderable Sum yearly. The Timber annually cut down for building Ships and houses is of immense value. Dr. Beeke takes it at £40,000,000 for Great Britain. A magnificent Canal, 7 Feet deep, that is navigable for small square-rigged Vessels, connects the Forth and the Clyde. The Caledonian Canal is of some extent, besides which are the Monckland and several others in Scotland. In Ireland a grand Canal joins Dublin by Inland Navigation with Limerick and Waterford; another extends from the Town of Newry to Lough-Neagh and the Collieries of Drumglass and Dungannon.
- (E) The Dwelling Houses not included in the Rent of Lands, are, in England and Wales, 1,726,871, in Scotland 309,741. Total 2,036,612: which may be distributed as follows:—

		Net Rental.	
Houses in Towns:—		5,00 . . averaged at £200† per Annum,	100,000
1,000 . . . Idem . . . 150 . . Idem			150,000
5,000 . . . Idem . . . 100 . . Idem			500,000
10,000 . . . Idem . . . 50 . . Idem			500,000
20,000 . . . Idem . . . 40 . . Idem			800,000
100,000 . . . Idem . . . 20 . . Idem			2,000,000
200,000 . . . Idem . . . 10 . . Idem			2,000,000
578,894 . . . Idem . . . 5 . . Idem			2,894,470—8,944,470
Houses in the Country:—		500 . . . Idem . . . 100 . . Idem	50,000
1,000 . . . Idem . . . 50 . . Idem			50,000
5,000 . . . Idem . . . 40 . . Idem			200,000
20,000 . . . Idem . . . 20 . . Idem			400,000
100,000 . . . Idem . . . 10 . . Idem			1,000,000
200,000 . . . Idem . . . 5 . . Idem			1,000,000
794,718 . . . Idem, somewhat more than £2 per Annum, . . .			1,855,530—4,555,530

£13,500,000 at 20 Years Purchase £270,000,000

Steam Engines, and other expensive Machinery may be estimated at . . 60,000,000

Total for Great Britain . . . £330,000,000

Ireland Idem in proportion about . . 70,000,000

Amounting, for Great Britain and Ireland, to £400,000,000

- (F) Sir Frederick Eden, in his "Observations and Statements on Insurance," supposes £116,000,000 to be the Amount of British Manufactures annually.

* By a late Survey Ireland contains 12,001,200 Acres, or about 19,439,960 Acres English measure, which Mr. Newenham, in page 326 of his Statistical and Historical Inquiry into the Progress and Magnitude of the Population of Ireland, thus distributes:—

	English Acres.
Lakes, Rivers, Roads, and decidedly irreclaimable Land about	1,000,000
Waste, but reclaimable Land, about	3,500,000
In furnishing different sorts of Provisions, &c. exported there are employed about	1,000,000
In an almost sterilized or at least unproductive state, one year with another, about	1,500,000
And there remain for the maintenance and other exigencies of the Population of Ireland	12,439,960
Total	19,439,960

† There are some Houses which may Rent for three, four, five, and even six, hundred pounds a Year; but as the number of these is comparatively very few, being confined chiefly to the largest class of Houses in the Metropolis, and the Seats of the Nobility and Gentry in the Country, and as the Houses of the next two or three Classes are also not numerous, they are all thrown together and here constitute the first Class, and are taken at an average much below their real value:—It being a Principle throughout these Tables to steer clear of exaggeration.

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

annually insurable in Great Britain, which he distributes as follows:—

British Manufactures for Home Consumption, viz.		£
Woollens	11,000,000	
Cotton Goods	6,000,000	
Leather	12,000,000	
Flax	2,000,000	
Hemp	2,000,000	
Glass	2,000,000	
Paper	1,500,000	
Porcelain and Poultry	2,000,000	
Silk	3,000,000	
Hardware	6,000,000	
Beer	10,000,000	
Spirits	4,000,000	
Soap	1,500,000	
Salt	1,000,000	
Candles	2,000,000	
Miscellaneous Articles	10,000,000	76,000,000
British Manufactures for Exportation		40,000,000
		<u>£ 116,000,000</u>

Adopting this as a very moderate estimate, the proportion for England and Wales may be stated at . 100,000,000
 Scotland the remaining . 16,000,000
 Ireland at nearly 1-4th the proportion of the amount stated for England and Wales . 24,000,000
 Making a Total for Great Britain and Ireland of £ 140,000,000

(G) Sir F. Eden has £39,000,000, as the Amount of Foreign Merchandize insurable throughout the year. This amount appears to have been formed from the then Value of the Imports, which may perhaps be considered a fair criterion. The Stock of Foreign Productions imported has however since greatly increased, particularly the Produce of the West Indies.

(H) The Shipping belonging to Great Britain, including those on the Stocks, were estimated by Sir F. Eden at £21,000,000. This valuation is chiefly founded on the Tonnage of Ships belonging to Great Britain in 1801, amounting to 1,725,940 Tons; in 1811 we find them increased to 2,168,094 Tons; and having also increased in value, they may now be fairly estimated at £24,000,000; and the Shipping of Ireland at perhaps 1-8th of this value, making a Total of £27,000,000 for Great Britain and Ireland.—This is exclusive of Shipping belonging to the British Colonies, 252,525 Tons, which are mentioned in another place.

(I) Sir Frederick Eden, in pages 3, 4, and 5 of his "Observations, &c. on Insurance," estimates the total Agricultural Stock in Great Britain, insurable for a year at £32,500,000, namely, for the Stock on hand of Wheat, Barley, Rye, Oats, Beans, and Straw. When to these are added Peas, Rape, Hops, Butter, Cheese, and Agricultural Utensils, the estimate may at the present day be fairly taken at £35,000,000, of which perhaps £5,000,000 is not too much for Scotland. The Agricultural Stock in Ireland, which from the great number of Farms and the Export of an immense surplus of Provisions is of considerable value, cannot be taken at less than £10,000,000, and here it is to be observed that almost every article has trebled in value within the last thirty years.

(K) The value of Animals may be thus distributed:—

Horses young and old, about 1,500,000 estimated at £20,000,000—being an average of £13. 6s. 8d. for each Horse.	
Horned Cattle 5,500,000 50,000,000—not £10. a head	
Sheep and Lambs 25,000,000 40,000,000—being an average of Sheep and Lambs at 32 shillings each.	
Hogs, Goats, Asses, &c. 1,500,000 2,000,000—averaged at £1. 6s. 8d.	
Deer, Wild Animals, and Poultry of all kinds may amount to 1,000,000	
Total Value of Animals in England and Wales £113,000,000	
of which the proportion for Scotland may be about 20,000,000	
Idem, Ireland, abounding with Cattle, at not less than 50,000,000	
Total for Great Britain and Ireland <u>£183,000,000</u>	

(L) As the Fisheries round the Coasts and in the Rivers of Great Britain and Ireland are beneficial to Individuals, they are classed under the head of Private Property:—For although all Waters which are in common, as the Sea and certain Rivers and Lakes, may be said to be Public Property, yet the Fish caught in them properly belong to those by whose labour they are obtained.

(M) The Lands which are not in a state of cultivation may be disposed of as follows:—

Acres.	
Waste and Commonable Lands which are capable of cultivation	5,500,000 which at an average of £15. per acre amounts to £82,500,000
Ways and Waters	540,800
Lands unimprovable, or which are incapable of any improvement adequate to the expence	673,600
Total of Uncultivated Lands in England and Wales	<u>6,714,400 Acres.</u>
The Uncultivated Lands in Scotland may be taken at 1-5th of the value of those in England and Wales	16,500,000
Idem Idem in Ireland† Idem Idem Idem	33,000,000
Making the Total Value of Waste and Commonable Lands in Great Britain and Ireland <u>£132,000,000</u>	

† See Note, page 56.

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

- (N) Dr. Beeke, in his "Observations on the Income Tax," has taken the Household Furniture in Dwelling Houses in Great Britain at £160,000,000; and Sir F. Eden, who wrote on Insurance, estimates it at one half the Value of the Houses, namely, £135,000,000. At the time the last mentioned Estimate was made, there were in Great Britain about 1,900,000 Houses in which there was Household Furniture; the number of Houses, as we have seen, is now 2,163,946, of which more than 1,950,000 contain Furniture. A medium of these Statements may perhaps be found correct, thus:—England and Wales £130,000,000, Scotland £15,000,000. Total £145,000,000. The Household Furniture in the Dwelling Houses in Ireland may, at least, be estimated at £40,000,000.
- (O) With respect to Wearing Apparel, Plate, Jewels, and other Ornamental Articles in Dwelling Houses, it is observable, that the amount in Articles of Ornament and Plate, &c. in Houses is very considerable, and appears to be becoming every Year still more so, the amount in Wearing Apparel has also increased in proportion to the increase of population. The several Amounts under both heads, as stated in the Table, have been considered moderate, and may perhaps be found rather under the real Value.
- (P) It appears from Appendix, No. 4, to Mr. Rose's "Brief Examination, &c." that the Gold Money which remained in Circulation in 1799 from Coinages at different periods, amounted to £43,950,042; but allowing a considerable sum to have been sent out of the Kingdom, and a very great quantity of guineas from the allurements of a large profit to have been converted into bullion, there may yet be in circulation and hoarded, Gold Coin, and Bank Dollars, and Silver Tokens, since coined, to the amount, stated in the Table, in the respective parts of the United Kingdom.
- (Q) The Palaces in England, are, St. James's, Windsor, Hampton-Court, Kew, and Carleton-House, 28 Cathedrals, about 10,000 Churches and Chapels of Ease, many of which Churches are very large, 2 Universities, the Principal Colleges, are, Westminster, Eton, Winchester, and the Charter House, to these may be added Military and Naval Schools, and Public Foundations for the Education of Youth. The Public Hospitals at Greenwich and Chelsea cost a considerable sum, there are also many minor Public Hospitals, very extensive Barracks* all over the Kingdom, the Houses of Parliament, Westminster-Hall, Courts of Justice, including County Court-Houses, The Treasury, Admiralty, Horse-Guards, Somerset-House, and many other Buildings appropriated to public purposes belonging to the Crown, Prisons in every County, Penitentiary Houses, &c. all which may be estimated at £20,000,000. In Scotland, the Palace of Holyrood House, about 1000 Churches, and as many Glebe Houses, the Colleges of Edinburgh, Glasgow, St. Andrew's, and Aberdeen, besides Public Foundations, Barracks, Prisons, Penitentiary Houses, &c. may be taken at the least at £2,000,000. The Public Buildings of every description in Ireland, cannot be worth less than £5,000,000.
- (R) The Arsenal at Woolwich, Tower of London, Castles, Forts, Martello Towers, the immense Fortifications at Dover, Portsmouth, Plymouth, Sheerness, Tilbury Fort, and other parts of the United Kingdom, are taken at the following very low Estimate:—England and Wales £12,000,000. Scotland £1,000,000. Ireland £4,000,000. Total £17,000,000.
- (S) From the Public Expenditure of Great Britain, (as stated in the Financial Accounts for 1812) which has this Item, "Building of Ships, purchase of Stores of every description, repairing of Ships, purchase of Stores taken from the Enemy, &c. £4,126,291. 15s. 1d." some idea may be formed of the immense Sums which are annually laid out on the Materials in the National Dock-Yards for building and repairing Ships, which Sums together with the real worth of the Dock-Yards may be fairly estimated at £10,000,000.
- (T) Considering that Ships of the Line, (of which there are 261) were estimated at £1000 per Gun, before the materials cost half their present Price, and that there are besides 36—50 Gun-Ships, 264 Frigates, 177 Sloops, 14 Bombs, 172 Brigs, 46 Cutters, and 64 Schooners; in all, more than 1000 Sail in Commission, in Ordinary, and Refitting; the whole including Ships on the Stocks, may exceed in value £25,000,000, having cost considerably more than this Sum.
- (U) The Military and Naval Ordnance, and public Stores of all kinds, deposited in the different Public Arsenals, Magazines, and Storehouses in Great Britain and Ireland, may amount to more than £10,000,000. If it were possible to suppose that these were to be annihilated, it would cost three times their value to replace them; and although the Public Buildings, Ships of War, and Military and Naval Ordnance, and Public Stores, are apparently unproductive, yet they are not so in reality, inasmuch as they are necessary for the defence and security of Civil Society.—Ships of War may also be said to be in a certain degree productive of benefits to the Country from the Captures that are made in time of War, and still more from the protection they afford to the immense value of British property constantly floating on the Ocean, which would otherwise become a prey to the Enemy.

* Mr. Rose states in Appendix, No. 5, to his "Brief Examination, &c." (printed in 1806) that "there are in Great Britain, Guernsey, and Jersey, &c. Barracks for 107,359 men, and for 10,419 Horses;" since which period, considerable additions have been made to the Barracks, and others are now in progress.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE AMOUNT OF PROPERTY IN THE BRITISH EMPIRE;
 Shewing the Value of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and all its Colonies and Dependencies, in Europe,
 America, Africa, and Asia, including the Territorial Possessions under the Management of the East India Company. (1812.)

GREAT BRITAIN and IRELAND, including the NAVY:—(See page 55.)

£
2,756,640,000

DEPENDENCIES IN EUROPE:—(See Table, No. 7.)

	£
Isle of Man	3,502,050
Scilly Islands	90,500
Guernsey	2,584,850
Jersey	2,610,030
Alderney	245,400
Sark	222,500
Gibraltar	5,130,000
Malta, including Goza	7,740,000
Heligoland	36,000
	— 22,161,330

COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES IN AMERICA, viz.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA:—(See Table, No. 8.)

	£
Canada	23,413,360
New Brunswick	4,720,000
Nova Scotia	9,803,000
Cape Breton	493,500
St. John's, or Prince Edward's Island	1,022,500
Newfoundland	6,973,000
Hudson's Bay	150,000
	£ 46,575,360

BRITISH WEST INDIA COLONIES:—(See Table, No. 9.)

	£
Jamaica	58,125,298
Barbadoes	9,089,630
Antigua	4,364,000
St. Vincent	4,006,866
St. Christopher's	3,783,800
Nevis	1,750,100
Montserrat	1,087,440
Virgin Islands	1,093,400
Grenada	4,994,365
Dominica	3,056,000
Trinidad	4,932,705
Bahamas	2,041,500
Bermudas	1,111,000
Honduras	578,760
	£100,014,864

CONQUERED WEST INDIA COLONIES:—(See Table, No. 9.)

Tobago	2,682,920	
St. Lucia	2,529,000	
St. Martin's	362,100	
Martinique	11,090,000	
Guadeloupe	13,611,000	
Mariegalante	773,000	
Surinam	11,729,000	
Berbice	7,415,160	
Demarara and Essequibo	18,410,480	
Curacoa	1,187,000	
St. Eustatia	415,900	
St. Croix	3,728,640	
St. Thomas	747,800	
St. John's	538,000	— 75,220,000
		— 175,234,864
		— 221,810,224
		Continued £ 2,980,611,554

GENERAL VIEW OF THE AMOUNT OF PROPERTY IN THE BRITISH EMPIRE;

Shewing the Value of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and all its Colonies and Dependencies in Europe, America, Africa, and Asia, including the Territorial Possessions under the Management of the East India Company:— (1812)

SETTLEMENTS IN AFRICA:—(See Table, No. 10.)			Continued	£
Senegal and its Dependencies			£	2,980,611,554
Goree		350,200		
Sierra Leone		120,100		
Cape of Good Hope		200,200		
		4,100,000		4,770,500
COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES IN ASIA:—			£	
New South Wales, and its Dependencies.—(See Table, No. 11.)		860,000		
Ceylon (See Table, No. 12.)		10,420,000		
Isle of Bourbon (See . . . Idem)		9,528,750		
Mauritius, or Isle of France. (See . . . Idem)		10,212,340		
Java, and its Dependencies (See . . . Idem)		7,700,000		
		£ 38,721,090		
TERRITORIAL POSSESSIONS UNDER THE MANAGEMENT OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY (See page 61)		1,072,427,751		1,111,148,841
				Grand Total. £ 4,096,530,895

AGGREGATE AMOUNT.		SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.	
In Europe	£ 2,736,941,330	EUROPE.—Great Britain and Ireland, including the Navy	£ 2,736,640,000
America	221,810,224	Dependencies	22,161,330
Africa	4,770,500	AMERICA.—British Possessions in North America	46,575,360
Asia, (Including the Territorial Possessions under the management of the East India Company)	1,111,148,895	British West India Colonies	100,014,864
	£4,096,530,895	Conquered West India Colonies	75,220,000
		AFRICA.—British Settlements	550,400
		Conquered Idem	4,220,100
		ASIA.—British Colonies and Dependencies	11,280,000
		Conquered . Idem . . Idem	27,441,090
			£ 38,721,090
		Territorial Possessions under the Management of the East India Company	1,072,427,751—1,111,148,841
		Total Property in the British Empire.	£ 4,096,530,895

MEMORANDA.—COLONIES and DEPENDENCIES taken by the BRITISH ARMS in the present War:—

In Europe . . . (as above) . . .	£ 36,000	{ Exclusive of Ships of War, Naval Stores, Ordnance, and other Property afloat captured in this War,
In America . . . (Idem) . . .	75,220,000	
In Africa . . . (Idem) . . .	4,220,100	
In Asia . . . (Idem) . . .	27,441,090	
Total	£ 106,917,190	

Shewing the Population, Number of Acres of Land cultivated, Shipping, Value of Productions raised annually. Exports and Imports, and circulating Specie; and an Estimate of the Amount of Property belonging to the East India Company, including the private Property of Individuals, in these Possessions, as an integral part of the British Empire.—From authentic Documents and the best accessible information.

(1812.)

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

- (A) Including Persons in the service of the East India Company. See Appendix, page 51.
- (B) Assuming that there may be for each Inhabitant the moderate average of one acre for raising Rice and other Articles of Food, and $\frac{1}{2}$ an Acre for productions wrought into Manufactures for Consumption and Exportation, and 10 millions of Acres for food for Cattle; the Land in cultivation, taking the Population as above stated, will be found to be 70,087,612 acres.
- (C) Vide Appendix, page 55.
- (D) The Productions raised for Exportation consist of Indigo, Sugar and Jaggery, Raw Silk, Cotton, Drugs, Pepper and other Spiceries, Cochineal, Betel Nut, Grain, Piece Goods, and many other Articles amounting to £11,674,454 (See Exports from India—Appendix, page 52) to which may be added, 5^l. per head on the Population, for Food, Clothing, Furniture, &c. the growth or production of the country annually consumed, amounting to £200,292,040:—Total £211,966,494.
- (E) For particulars see Appendix, page 52.
- (F) As the many valuable Articles above-mentioned are produced in considerable quantity, it is conceived that £5 per Acre would be a moderate average for the value of the Lands in cultivation, including the Stock, the number of Acres as already estimated being 70,087,612, the amount will be £350,438,060.
- (G) Considering the immense Wealth, comprised in this item, belonging to Free Merchants, Persons in the Company's Service, and Natives (many of whom are in a state of affluence) the following may be deemed a fair Estimate:—

state of affluence) the following may be deemed a fair Estimate :—														£	£								
500,000	Europeans and Natives possessing in Houses, Stores, Merchandize, Furniture, &c. except Money in circulation, averaged,													200	each person	100,000,000							
1,000,000	-	-	Idem	-	-	Idem	-	-	-	-	Idem	-	-	-	Idem	-	-	100	-	Idem	100,000,000		
2,000,000	-	-	Idem	-	-	Idem	-	-	-	-	Idem	-	-	-	Idem	-	-	50	-	Idem	100,000,000		
4,000,000	-	-	Idem	-	-	Idem	-	-	-	-	Idem	-	-	-	Idem	-	-	20	-	Idem	80,000,000		
8,000,000	-	-	Idem	-	-	Idem	-	-	-	-	Idem	-	-	-	Idem	-	-	10	-	Idem	80,000,000		
10,000,000	-	-	Idem	-	-	Idem	-	-	-	-	Idem	-	-	-	Idem	-	-	5	-	Idem	50,000,000		
14,558,408	-	-	In a state of indigence, whose wages of labour barely furnish the means of subsistence													-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
40,058,408																				Total - £510,000,000			

- (H) 121 Vessels, 49,419 Tons, which belong to Calcutta and Bombay (See Appendix, page 55), being estimated at the low average of 12*l*. Sterling per Ton their value will be found to be £593,028.

- (1) The Gold and Silver Coin in circulation to a very considerable amount may be fairly estimated as follows;—

	£	Sterling.
Inhabitants.		
1,500,000—Some in a state of opulence, some in easy circumstances, averaged, each may possess a sum equal to	20	£30,000,000
6,000,000—Possessing moderate incomes arising from Trade and Agriculture	10	60,000,000
18,000,000—The lower Orders of the Trading Community	5	90,000,000
14,558,408—Subsisting entirely on labour and mostly indigent		
Total 40,058,408		Total £180,000,000

For the particular details from which this Aggregate is formed see the Appendix.

CHAPTER III.

AN ATTEMPT TO ESTIMATE THE NEW PROPERTY ANNUALLY CREATED IN THE BRITISH EMPIRE BY THE LABOUR OF THE PEOPLE EMPLOYED IN AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, TRADE, COMMERCE, NAVIGATION, FISHERIES, AND OTHER BRANCHES OF PRODUCTIVE INDUSTRY.

The importance of the Subject, since it leads to the discovery of the only means by which Nations subsist and Revenues are obtained.---Food, raiment, and every comfort and convenience in life are obtained by the labour of the people.---According to the extent of this labour Nations flourish or decay.---The investigation, as it relates to the British Empire, fills the mind with astonishment and exultation.---The Tables with the explanatory Notes annexed to this Chapter shew the principle upon which the calculations have proceeded.---Amount of the National Income or Property created yearly from the Labour of the People stated at £693,228,336, arising from Agriculture, Fisheries, Mines and Minerals, Manufactures, Inland Trade, Foreign Commerce and Shipping, Coasting Trade, Banks, and Foreign Income remitted to this Country, including Fifty-three Colonies and Dependencies in the possession of Great Britain, and the Territorial Possessions in India under the management of the East India Company.---The circulating medium of the country considered.---Five Chartered Banks, and Eight Hundred and Sixty-six private Banking Establishments in Great Britain and Ireland, the aggregate of whose Capitals estimated at £40,700,000.---The Banking System explained.---Its advantages and benefits to the Community.---Its defects.---Improvements in the Banking System recommended as a security to the Public against Insolvency.---Conclusion of the Chapter.

THERE is perhaps no subject connected with political economy of a more interesting nature than that which relates to those enquiries which lead to the discovery of the means by which nations subsist from year to year, and the sources from whence revenues are obtained for the support of states, kingdoms, and empires.

Millions of individuals in all countries pass through life without being aware, that the food which nourishes them, the cloathing which covers them, the habitations which shelter them from the inclemency of the weather, and all the other conveniences and comforts which they enjoy, proceed entirely from the labour of the people employed in *agriculture, mines, and minerals*,—in *manufactures*, and *handicraft employments*,—and in *trade, commerce, navigation, and fisheries*.

It is by the labour of the people, employed in various branches of industry, that all ranks of the community in every condition of life annually subsist; and it is by the produce of this labour alone, that nations become powerful in proportion to the extent of the surplus which can be spared for the exigencies of the state. It is by the increase or the diminution of the produce of this labour that states, kingdoms, and empires flourish or decay.

In contemplating (upon this principle) the peculiar situation of the British empire, the mind is filled with wonder and exultation by the results which the investigation discloses, while these results fully account for the astonishing resources which the British Government has been found to possess, far beyond any other nation in the world in proportion to the population from whence these resources are chiefly derived.

In the Tables (from page 89 to 96) annexed to this Chapter, it is distinctly shewn upon what principle the different calculations have proceeded; and the whole being elucidated by copious explanatory notes, a confident hope is entertained that the estimates will be found in all the different branches of productive labour to fall short of the actual value of the new property created.

The Tables will be found to exhibit a novelty in political economy. They are formed on a presumption that the statements approximate nearly to the truth, sufficiently so for every purpose of useful discussion, from which conclusions may be drawn connected with subjects of great importance in state policy. The advantages which may be expected to result from investigations which so highly interest the statesman, the agriculturist, the manufacturer, the trader, and those engaged in commercial and other similar pursuits, it is humbly hoped will appear obvious to all who from interest, inclination, or curiosity may be induced to peruse with attention the interesting details which they contain. Being constructed on a simple principle, and assuming to disclose a species of information all of the most vital importance to be generally known and understood, they differ in their nature from Tables the object of which is limited to partial details merely calculated to elucidate different branches of commerce,—which are generally ephemeral, and soon cease to be interesting.

In the pursuit of a species of statistical knowledge, interesting to every civilized nation and particularly above all others to the British Empire, it is a matter of regret that the official materials are so scanty. To supply this deficiency much labour has been employed in obtaining the best information which bore upon each

particular branch of the subject, and wherever the aid of official documents could be rendered available, they have been taken into consideration in all the estimates to which they were either directly or indirectly applicable.

A period may perhaps arrive after the author of this work shall be mouldered in the dust, when the same ground may be gone over by some abler pen under those superior advantages which the progress of society with respect to official facts may afford, so as to exhibit to future generations views *which shall be official* of the value of the new property created every year from the labour of the people, in all the different occupations in which they may be employed. Such estimates, were it possible to publish them annually, would prove a most correct barometer by which the resources of the state could be measured, and its power and opulence ascertained. It would enable those assigned to execute the powers of government to discover at once all vacillations with respect to the actual situation of the empire, so as to apply remedies where a retrograde is discovered by such encouragements as should appear best calculated to secure the continuance of a course of prosperity, and by those arrangements which an attention to facts, founded on accurate data, may render effectual,—and their operation certain in promoting the continued prosperity of the country.

It is by such efforts as shall give that extensive scope to the human mind which shall embrace the whole range, constituting the great features of political economy, that the statesman is enabled to form just conceptions of what constitutes the true interest of a country. It is a subject which never can be contemplated partially, far less acted upon without hazarding some collateral interest, and disturbing the harmony of the great whole. One branch of industry should, as far as possible, be made to support another without injury to either. To understand clearly how this is to be done requires a knowledge of those approximating facts, which include in their details the general economy of the British Empire, which is the object of this work to bring for the first time under the review of the public.

Of all other branches connected with this most interesting subject the ascertainment of the national income, or the property created yearly from the labour of the people, is the most important; since on the produce of this labour every thing depends which constitutes the existence, the comfort, the power, and the security of the sovereign and the people.

The following splendid view of the estimated produce of the labour of the people in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and the Colonies and other Dependencies of the Crown, in the year 1812, will be perused with considerable in-

terest, while the Tables connected with and annexed to this Chapter will more fully elucidate the details upon which the different estimates are formed.

ESTIMATE OF

Property created in Great Britain and Ireland in the Year 1812-13.

Agriculture in all its branches	£216,817,624	£
Mines and Minerals, including Coals, &c.	9,000,000	
Manufactures in every branch	114,230,000	
Inland Trade in all its branches	31,500,000	
Foreign Commerce and Shipping	46,373,748	
Coasting Trade	2,000,000	
Fisheries, exclusive of the Colonial Fisheries of Newfoundland	2,100,000	
Chartered and Private Bankers	3,500,000	
Foreign Income remitted	5,000,000—430,521,372	

British and Conquered Colonies and Dependencies.

Fifty-three Colonies and Dependencies, annual produce of Labour	£50,740,470	
Possessions in India, under the management of the Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies	211,966,494—262,706,964	
Total	£693,228,336	

AGRICULTURE.

The agricultural labour of Great Britain and Ireland is presumed to give employment and to afford support to 5,500,000 of the population, and the annual produce of this labour is estimated at £216,817,624. It will be seen by a reference to the Tables annexed to this Chapter, that the produce of the soil in vegetable productions applicable to the food of animals raised for human sustenance (butter and cheese only excepted, which are considered as a manufacture from milk), consumed in the course of the year, merges in the estimated expence of the food by which cattle, sheep, lambs, calves, hogs, poultry, and other animals have been reared for the food of man with the labour in rearing them. In attempting therefore to estimate the proportion of the produce of the soil which is consumed annually by man, it will be necessary to add to the wheat, grain, potatoes, fruit, and vegetables, the value of the provender consumed within the year by those animals, which the whole population is supposed to consume annually. And it is upon this principle that the following estimate is hazarded, as a means of elucidating a very intricate subject, not generally understood, although it is of the most vital importance that the approximating facts should, in some measure, be rendered familiar to the mind.

In the year 1811 the population of Great Britain and Ireland, including the

army and navy, has been estimated in this work at 17,096,803 persons†; but as the army, navy, marines, and registered seamen have been principally fed from the produce of the United Kingdom, and as the increased population since the census for Great Britain was made cannot be estimated at less than nearly one million of increase for the United Kingdom on the 1st of May, 1814, the whole may be taken at 18,000,000, depending principally on the soil of the British Isles for subsistence.

Assuming these data, therefore, the proportions of agricultural produce for the food of man and animals, and for other purposes as hereinafter stated, may admit of the following arrangement.

For the Food of Man:—

Wheat and other Grain used for Bread and for other purposes	£ 51,387,748
Potatoes	13,840,293
Barley and Hops manufactured into Beer and Spirits	9,362,500
Vegetables and Fruit	2,600,000
Butter and Cheese	5,000,000
Grain, Hay, Straw, and Potatoes, and other Provender in raising Cattle for slaughter,—also Grain, Potatoes, Grass and Turnips for raising Sheep for slaughter, Hogs, Poultry, &c.	45,500,000
	£ 127,690,541

For the Food of Animals:—

Grain for 1,800,000 Horses	£9,117,376
Grass, Hay, Straw, and other Provender	18,000,000
	27,117,376
Grass, Hay, Straw, Potatoes, and other Provender for 10,000,000 of Cattle	60,700,000
Grass and Turnips for 42,000,000 Sheep and Lambs	28,600,000
Grain, Potatoes, Milk, and other Provender for Hogs, Goats, Asses, Calves, Poultry, and all other Animals	2,600,000
Rural Labour in rearing and feeding	1,600,000
	£120,617,376
Deduct the proportion of the Grain, Provender, and Labour in rearing and feeding Animals of all kinds, tame and wild, consumed within the year	45,500,000
	75,117,376
Manufactures:—Wool, Hemp, Flax, and Timber for Manufactures, and Seeds for Oil and other purposes	11,759,707
Miscellaneous:—Nurseries	2,000,000
Potatoes for Exportation	250,000
	£216,817,624

	Persons.
† Population of Great Britain in 1811	11,956,303
Population of Ireland estimated at	4,500,000
Navy and Army, &c. fed chiefly by the parent state	640,500
	17,096,803
Estimated increase of the Population of Great Britain and Ireland, presumed to approximate nearly or perhaps to exceed in three years	903,197
	18,000,000

It has been already shewn from Parliamentary documents in 1812-13, when the imported corn, grain, &c. were deducted from what was exported for the army and the colonies, that the corn produced in Great Britain and Ireland was found equal to the consumption of the resident inhabitants, together with the dependencies of the crown, and the navy and army in Europe, and the West Indies. And from the progressive and rapid improvements in agriculture, particularly in Ireland, there is every reason to hope that it may now keep pace with the national consumption both at home and abroad, provided the prices are such as shall yield a fair and reasonable profit to the cultivators of the soil;—which, when the increased rents and taxes are taken into consideration, ought not to be less than from 75s. to 80s. a quarter for wheat, and in proportion for every other species of grain.

If the population shall continue to increase in the same ratio as during the preceding ten years, and employment can be found for the people in all the various branches of industry in this country in a greater proportion than in any other, it is highly probable that the demand for corn and grain will somewhat exceed the supply even in years of abundance, which will of course support such prices as will hold out sufficient encouragement to the cultivators of the soil.

MINES AND MINERALS.

It is one of the peculiar blessings among many others conferred by Providence on the British Isles, that in addition to the abundance of food and other produce obtained from the surface of the land, the bowels of the earth send forth great riches, arising from *iron, copper, lead, tin, salt, allum, coals, stones, lime, chalk, slate*, and various other articles, the labour of procuring which, exclusive of the subsequent process necessary to bring these raw materials into the hands of the consumers, is estimated in the Table, No. 3, page 90, at *nine millions sterling a year*. The vast and unexampled increase of the iron founderies,—the rich produce of the copper, lead, and tin mines,—and various articles extracted from the bowels of the earth, which the new discoveries in chemistry have rendered valuable articles of commerce, have tended greatly to increase the value of the mines, but above all, the great articles of coals and salt, which are become so extensive as to leave little doubt of the estimate not being overcharged. The advantages derived from these sources of wealth, when coals are taken into consideration, are incalculable in a country where timber is not accessible for fuel. It is upon this foundation that the prosperity of almost all the great manufacturers rest. The coals alone, exclusive of freight, duties, and charges, which are consumed in the metropolis and the vicinity,

must nearly approach two million pounds sterling a year. To the consumers this useful fuel cannot be estimated at less than three millions.

A substance has lately been discovered in the vacuum of wasted coal mines, from which allum of the best quality and various other valuable articles are produced, in consequence of the chemical knowledge which of late years has been so successfully prosecuted by ingenious manufacturers; and new discoveries are constantly in progress, rendering the mines more and more productive.

MANUFACTURES.

It is impossible to contemplate the progress of manufactures in Great Britain within the last thirty years without wonder and astonishment. Its rapidity, particularly since the commencement of the French revolutionary war, exceeds all credibility. The improvement of the steam engines, but above all the facilities afforded to the great branches of the woollen and cotton manufactories by ingenious machinery, invigorated by capital and skill, are beyond all calculation; and as these machines are rendered applicable to silk, linen, hosiery, and various other branches, the increased produce, assisted by human labour, is so extensive that it does more than counterbalance the difference between the price of labour in this, and other countries:—the latter cannot enjoy the same facilities without those extensive capitals, skill, and experience which the British manufacturers have acquired, and which cannot be transferred to foreign nations without those requisites (capital and skill) which they will probably not possess for a long series of years, and which very few of them can ever hope to enjoy. These considerations are sufficient to allay all fears or apprehensions of any injurious competition in the foreign market.

The manufactures of the United Kingdom extend almost to every species of labour which renders the productions of nature fit for the uses and purposes of human and animal life. Little or any thing in a finished state is wanted from other countries. The British manufactures may be divided into two classes.—First, those articles which are fabricated for home consumption and exportation: and second, those which apply only to domestic use, such as houses, buildings, mills, machinery, and persons employed in preparing bread, meat, and other food for home consumption. Almost every other article may be exported to other countries to the extent that can be spared, consisting of above forty different fabrics, giving employment to more than 3,000,000 of the population of the United Kingdom, including their families. Of these branches the *cotton, woollen, leather, linen, fabricated metals, glass, and porcelain*, are by far the most extensive, as will be seen by a reference to the Table, No. 3, pages 91, 92, 93, and 94.

These various manufactures are estimated to produce from labour alone, after deducting the raw materials, £114,230,000 yearly.

The British and Irish produce and manufactures exported on an average for the three last years, according to the public accounts, including the produce of the mines, amounted to £54,571,054. Hence it may be inferred that the surplus, amounting to £68,658,946, remained for the national consumption, including the army, navy, marines, registered seamen, and prisoners of war. To nearly the whole of this immense exportation, therefore, the colonial and foreign consumers all contribute towards the taxes imposed for the support and defence of the country.

It is however to be observed, that the exportation of British and Irish produce and manufactures was checked at a period when Continental Europe, the great mart for sale and consumption, was in a considerable degree shut against this country by the restrictions of an implacable enemy, who, availing himself of an existing colossal power, unexampled in the history of the modern world, had vainly hoped to ruin the commerce and power of Britain by what he vauntingly denominated his continental system. The hand unseen of Providence having at length kindly interposed in giving success to the British arms and to the patriotic exertions of the Allies of Continental Europe, who had long groaned under a rod of oppression, tyranny, and injustice, that power in its plenitude, happily for the civilized world, no longer exists. It is crushed and disarmed of its terrors. The Continent of Europe is again open to British commerce, with the fairest prospect of extending the sale of its produce and manufactures to a height in point of value very far beyond what has been experienced in years of the greatest prosperity. And thus a field is opened to the manufacturers of the United Kingdom for the advantageous disposal of the surplus labour of the people, which, in magnitude and extent, can scarcely be calculated.

The rapid increase of wealth which will arise from this great additional source of consumption, diffused (as it must be) among a very numerous class of the community, while it forms a bulwark against any great competition, in consequence of a great augmentation of the manufacturing capital, must in its general operation add considerably to the resources of the state.

INLAND TRADE.

The next source of productive labour is what arises from the inland trade, which is estimated at £31,500,000, and prosecuted by about 4,500,000 individuals, including their families, in Great Britain and Ireland, in which trade a very large capital is employed, which will appear from the Table, No. 3, page 95. It is that species of traffic which is carried on by subjects of the same state, who are inhabitants of the

same country, or in other words, tradesmen who buy and sell commodities in the countries wherein they reside. This trade is not confined to the produce of the soil in corn, grain, and other articles arising from agricultural labour, but extends not only to the home manufactures, but to every article imported from the colonies and from foreign countries. Neither are the sales confined to the consumers of Great Britain and Ireland, but extend to the whole transmarine possessions of the crown, and to all foreign nations with whom there is intercourse. The first is conveyed directly to the consumers by the inland traders themselves,—the latter through the medium of the merchants or exporters to the colonies and dependencies of the crown, and to foreign countries.

In this manner inland traders acquire riches; but that proportion of it which is not drawn from the colonial possessions and from foreign exportation, although it increases the property of the individual does not appear to augment the public wealth of the nation. It adds, however, greatly to the resources of the state through the medium of taxes and the more extended division of property, which operates powerfully in augmenting the revenues of the state.

The new property estimated at £31,500,000, and presumed to be obtained from inland trade, partly arises from the necessary increase in point of value of all commodities in their transit to the last purchaser, previous to which, like every article in the course of being manufactured, it does not reach its true and actual value until it arrives at that maturity which places it ultimately in the possession of the consumer; passing through various hands, and increasing in value step by step in its progress, affording a certain remuneration to all who are concerned in placing it in a marketable state, whether it relates to the inland or foreign sale, with this difference however in favour of the British produce and manufactures which are exported, that these acquire an additional value arising from the profits of the merchant, broker, labourer, ship owner, and others concerned in conveying the articles to the foreign consumer.

In the aggregate sum of £31,500,000 is also included the produce of the labour of persons employed in keeping public houses, in forming navigable canals, and similar improvements, and also in the transit of goods upon rivers and inland navigations, and in waggons,* and likewise the trade in stage coaches, posting, and all other conveyances, and exclusively in the transit of property to and from different parts of the United Kingdom.

* 40,000 waggons and other carriages, including their repeated journies, are estimated to arrive at and depart from London alone annually, laden with articles of domestic, colonial, and foreign merchandize, amounting to about fifty millions sterling. See a Treatise on the Police of the Metropolis, 4th Edit. p. 410.

FOREIGN COMMERCE AND SHIPPING.

Foreign commerce is that which is carried on by the subjects of different states, or the inhabitants of different countries; and those who conduct this species of traffic are denominated *merchants, agents, consignees, brokers, clerks, and labourers*, while those who furnish the facilities for conveying goods to and from foreign ports are denominated ship owners.

Merchants are such as buy commodities from the subjects of one state or the inhabitants of one country, and sell them again to the subjects of another state, or to the inhabitants of another country, or buy commodities in one part of a country and sell them again in another part of it, provided they are carried there by sea.

Agents are those who export goods to other countries by sea on the account and risk of their correspondents abroad, receiving a commission for their labour and trouble. Consignees are a class of individuals who receive goods from their correspondents abroad on account and risk of such correspondents for sales and returns, and who are remunerated by a certain commission on the sales, the amount of which is regulated by the well understood usages of trade.

The Table, No. 3, contained in page 95, exhibits in the first instance the principle upon which the new property, arising yearly from foreign trade and shipping, is presumed to be obtained, and in what manner it is divided, while the subsequent Tables in pages 100 and 101, disclose to the reader the vast extent of the foreign commerce of Great Britain and Ireland for the three years preceding the 5th January, 1813. Notwithstanding the measures pursued by the enemy for obstructing all intercourse with the continent of Europe, the exports and imports for the year ending the 5th January, 1813, stood thus:—

Exported to all countries £73,725,602

Imported from all countries 60,424,876

Total £134,150,478

The ships and vessels employed in carrying on this immense commerce for the year ending the 5th January, 1813 (including their repeated voyages) will be seen by referring to the same Table to stand thus—

Ships.	Tons.	Men employed.
28,061	3,160,293	184,352

These Tables will be perused with exultation and astonishment by every British subject, whose attention may be directed to details of so interesting a nature. They will rejoice to discover, that the efforts of a powerful and implacable enemy to ruin and destroy the resources of the country have, by rousing the energy of the people,

raised it to a height of power and prosperity very far beyond any nation in the world. The progress of this prosperity is strikingly marked; strongly manifesting the hand of Providence stretched out in behalf of this highly favoured Empire; since without the unexampled and even unexpected accumulation of wealth, which rapidly flowed upon the nation since the commencement of the French revolutionary war beyond all former example, it would have been impossible to have withstood the colossal power of an enemy, who for a series of years had paralysed the whole of the nations of Continental Europe, and laid many of their sovereigns prostrate at the feet of a military adventurer of low origin—a revolutionary tyrant whose success for a time in a course of unjust, unprincipled, and unprovoked warfare, had spread desolation, distress, and ruin, wherever he stretched his pestilential arm.

The new property created annually and arising from the profits derived from this immense trade, giving employment to 406,350 individuals, including their families, is estimated at £46,373,748; thus exhibiting an animated view of the stupendous height to which the commerce of Great Britain and Ireland has arrived. If to this, however, is added the distinct and separate trade of the numerous dependencies of the crown in every quarter of the habitable globe, as exhibited in the Tables annexed to the 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th Chapters of this work, the magnitude of this separate trade, although in its infancy, would fill the mind with presages the most consoling with respect to the extent to which it may be carried, and when it is recollected that a very large portion of the surplus wealth of all these distant countries ultimately centers in the parent state, this additional resource cannot fail progressively to increase the national property, and add greatly to the resources of the now widely extended British empire.

It has been already mentioned that the commerce of the territories under the government of the East India Company, independent of the European trade, amounts in exports and imports to and from different ports in Asia and Africa to £15,516,605 sterling.* The trade between many of the British West India Colonies and the Continent and Islands of South America has become an object of great magnitude of late years, and no doubt can be entertained of a progressive increase, where the returns will be chiefly made in bullion for British manufactures.

The colonial trade has become an object of great importance, as will be seen in another part of this work. The value of the productions of the British and conquered colonies, which centered in Great Britain, according to the public accounts

* See Appendix, page 55 :—

Exports from all parts of British India to the different ports in Asia and Africa	£7,763,706
Imports from different ports in Asia and Africa into British India	7,752,899
	£15,516,605

ending the 5th January 1812, amounted to £15,734,115,* at the then prices of colonial produce; the importation of 1813 cannot be estimated at less than £22,000,000, the value of which is paid for partly in manufactures, while the surplus augments the active capital of the country every year to the amount of nearly £13,000,000 sterling,—in addition to the profit of the manufactures which are exported. The British colonies in North America are also advancing rapidly, since the public accounts shew that in the year ending the 5th January 1812, the imports and exports amounted together to £6,460,543, being more than the whole trade of what is now called the United States before they were severed from Great Britain.† The Asiatic Colonies too are likely to be very soon objects of great importance in a commercial point of view, Ceylon in particular possesses great resources, while several of the dependencies of the crown in Europe, such as Gibraltar and Malta, although they produce nothing for exportation, have yet been found of great importance as depots of merchandize, or marts to which foreign purchasers resort for supplies suitable to their wants.

Upon the whole, it will be found that all the colonies and dependencies of the crown are more or less susceptible of great improvements. The productions of the colonies may be greatly augmented, while the fairest prospect now opens of an advantageous sale being found for the surplus, however extensive it may be, since the war which has so long raged in Europe has in a great measure destroyed the rivalship which formerly existed. The supplies to foreign countries must therefore be chiefly furnished through the medium of Great Britain and Ireland,—thereby drawing immense sums annually not only from the surplus labour of the manufactures at home, but from the labour of the colonial population beyond what is necessary for their own consumption. And hence it follows, that every improvement, by which the productive labour in the colonies is augmented, will enable the parent state to draw from foreign countries new and additional resources in proportion to this increase.

The surplus exportable labour produced in the British Isles will always consist chiefly of manufactures; that of the colonies will arise entirely from agricultural pursuits; while both together constitute not the annual income, but the annual profit of the nation, by which it is enabled to purchase those raw materials for manufactures, and also those articles of luxury or food which cannot be supplied at home.

It may happen under certain circumstances (however paradoxical it may appear) that the whole imports of a country may exceed its exports in actual value, and yet the country may at the same time increase in wealth.

Raw materials (necessary for extensive manufactures) and even corn for food, may be imported so as with other articles to exceed the exports, but in so far as the manufactured goods were required for domestic use the nation derived a benefit, which would not have been obtained had the same goods been imported in a finished

* See Table, No. 9.

† See Table, No. 8.

state. Corn may also be imported for food under circumstances, where the labour of the people may be more productive of money in manufactures than in raising the corn that is imported. In this manner the imports may in their value exceed the exports, and yet the riches of the country may be augmented; but this can scarcely take place, unless the great mass of the labouring people are fully and profitably employed.

This has frequently been the situation of Great Britain. The science of commerce is exceedingly complicated. Its branches are so interwoven with each other, that the restrictions of law are to be avoided as much as possible. The wise policy of the British Government, in this respect, is rendered manifest by the proud height to which the commerce of the British empire has arrived.

COASTING TRADE.

The insular situation of the United Kingdom affords great facilities in the transportation of produce and merchandize from one port to another. The number of vessels employed in the coasting trade of Great Britain and Ireland, including those in the coal trade, are extremely numerous, and cannot be estimated at less than 3000 vessels of every description, which may possibly admit of the following division—

	Vessels.
From the whole of the Out-ports to the Port of London . . .	700, making 6,920 Voyages in a year.
From Newcastle, Sunderland, and Blythe with Coals to London . . .	450 . . . 3,750 idem
Vessels in the Coal Trade to other Ports from ditto	470 . . . 4,000 idem
Vessels employed from Whitehaven and other Ports in the Coast- ing Coal Trade	} 250 . . . 2,700 idem
Vessels employed in conveying Produce and Merchandize to and from one Out-port in the United Kingdom to another }	1,200 . . . 10,000 idem
Total	3,070 Vessels 27,370 Voyages in a year.

Estimating these vessels to average 100 tons each, which is somewhat less than an official return made in 1798 of the coasting trade to the Port of London, the number of tons conveyed from one port to another of produce, including coals and merchandize of all kinds, would amount to 2,737,000 tons outwards, and supposing only half a cargo homewards on an average, the total would be 4,105,500 tons, which taken at ten shillings a ton would give a profit arising from labour and capital, amounting to the sum of two millions, stated in the Table. No. 3, page 95, estimated to be the new Property created annually from this trade, which is certainly very moderate.*

* See Colquhoun's Treatise on the Police of the River Thames (page 16) for particular and specific details of the wonderful extent of the Coasting Trade with the Port of London, shewing that in 1797 and 1798, the following number of vessels arrived in the River Thames in the course of a year with cargoes—

Foreign Vessels from various parts	1843
British Vessels	1425— 3262
Colliers	3676
Coasting Vessels from England, Wales, and Scotland	6500—10,176
Total, including their repeated Voyages	13,444

All produce and other merchandize, (as has already been observed) whether conveyed in coasting vessels in rivers and navigable canals, or in waggons and other land conveyances to the dealers, never reach their real or intrinsic value, until they arrive through all their different stages in transit to the actual consumer—until which period they can never be considered as in a finished state.

Independently of the new property created annually from the coasting trade, arising from capital and labour, it is invaluable to the nation, as a most extensive nursery for seamen. In this respect, the United Kingdom possesses advantages far beyond any rival power; and from the resources her foreign and coasting trade afford, in rearing a hardy race of maritime labourers, this country must ever remain pre-eminent as a great naval power, since no other nation can ever possess equal advantages. And as both the foreign and coasting trade must advance with the growing opulence of the country, the resources for productive aquatic labour and for power, as a natural result, must experience a progressive augmentation.

FISHERIES.

Much has been written on the subject of the British and Irish fisheries, for the purpose of explaining the immense resources which the United Kingdom possesses with respect to this species of food, and the advantages which might be derived from proper arrangements, by which the abundance of the finest fish to be found in the surrounding seas may be rendered an object of great national importance.

The legislature has not been sparing in lending a fostering aid to this species of aquatic labour; but in spite of every encouragement hitherto held out, it is to be lamented that the progress has been slow, and the advantages to the adventurers not very encouraging. The result has been, that the nation has derived but little comparative advantage, when the various efforts which have been made to establish fisheries, and the abundance of fish which may be caught, are taken into consideration.

The great object is to discover the means by which the growing population of the country may benefit by the unquestionable resources it possesses for obtaining much wealth from the produce of the sea.

The object is of vast importance, since the circumstances of the time are developing every year the necessity of new efforts, in order to find food for an increasing population.

To effect this object the produce of the British and Irish fisheries ought to be increased at least five fold. It may not be too much to say, that it is susceptible of an augmentation of more than double that extent, with the certainty of a consumption for the whole. Except in the maritime counties, fish is but little known to

the mass of the people, and forms scarcely any part of their food; although under practicable arrangements it could be furnished at £18 a ton with a considerable profit, while other animal food cannot at present be procured under £70 a ton.*

It is lamentable to reflect, that while £45,000,000 sterling is estimated as the value of butchers' meat and other animal food consumed annually, after a careful investigation, the property created by the labour employed in the coast and river fisheries can only be estimated at £1,500,000, including the herrings and pilchards exported. It is however impossible to reach the truth through the medium of any existing public documents.

Even in many of the maritime towns regular supplies of fish cannot be obtained, and when exposed to sale the price is generally beyond the reach of the mass of the people. In the metropolis alone is this article always to be found, but never in such abundance except at those periods of the year when mackarel, herring, and sprats are in season,—and when these shoal fish are so abundant as from their reduced price to be accessible to the poor.—At all other seasons of the year almost every species of fish is considered as a luxury, often inaccessible to the middle ranks of society.

In order to remove the difficulties which are opposed to the general consumption of fish, it must be slightly salted, and that species selected which is best suited to the taste of the people. It must be so prepared as to admit of a transit to every part of the interior of the country without the risk of spoiling (Vide page 15, Note (i)).

Large establishments round the coast, invigorated by capitals and skill equal to the object, could not fail to produce a great accession of property, generated every year by the labour of the people employed in this species of industry. On the return of peace, it would prove an immense resource for the employment of the numerous maritime labourers who must be discharged from the navy.

The deep sea fishing for herrings, to be cured after the manner of the Dutch for the consumption of the continent of Europe, might also prove a great object; since the immense wealth acquired by that industrious nation from the fish caught upon the British coasts is an irrefragable proof of what may be accomplished by the British people, who are certainly inferior to no nation in Europe in enterprise, while it is superior to all in capital.

The labour of the people, employed in the Northern and Southern Whale and Seal Fisheries is estimated at £600,000 a year.†—Which is about the average value of the produce imported, according to the public accounts presented to Parliament. These fisheries are however capable of great extension, and will afford an additional resource for the beneficial employment of seamen on the return of peace.

* See page 15.

† See Table, No. 3, page 96.

Upon the whole, with the resources which Great Britain possesses (exclusive of the immense colonial fisheries) it may be fairly presumed, that from this species of aquatic labour in process of time a new property may be acquired from the seas and rivers equal to ten millions a year, where all or mostly all is profit, since no rent is payable, and no deduction is to be made except what arises from the tear and wear of nets and other implements of labour, and of the ships, vessels, and boats employed in this branch of industry.

BANKERS.

In all commercial states, where commerce is widely extended, various expedients have been adopted for the purpose of economising the use of the precious metals, while in the progress of society, and more particularly during the last and the present century these expedients have acquired a consistency and a stability under the sanction of improving laws, which have given facilities to the exchange of commodities, which would have been totally impracticable through the medium of the precious metals—

- 1st. By means of debit and credit in open account where goods are purchased and sold, assuming the features of barter, and where after a given time a single payment instead of money closes the account. This is also applicable to insurance brokers, who, instead of payments on each policy, credit the underwriter for the premiums, and debit him with the losses, and settle the whole at the end of the year by receiving or paying the balance by a draft on a banker. If the insurers were to require money instead of credit in a current account, many millions of additional circulating medium would be necessary.
- 2d. By means of bills of exchange and promissory notes, by which merchants and dealers are enabled to purchase commodities from others who circulate these bills with additional securities, by indorsement, in the payment of debts and other commercial engagements. This species of circulating medium performs operations in the interchange of commodities to an incalculable extent, without the intervention of the money of the state, while these bills in their transit from hand to hand until they become payable often perform the functions of from ten to fifty times their value; and in this manner the circulating medium, or what is called money, is greatly economized.

These two expedients for lessening the demand for an extensive circulation of the medium of the state greatly tend to lessen the quantity of actual money which would be necessary, which, without these aids, would extend to an amount which is almost incalculable.

But the most important discovery for the purpose of giving velocity to the circulation of money will be found in the system of modern banking, through which medium millions are paid and received with a degree of facility and security which is truly astonishing, and by which the wear and tear of the precious metals are not only saved, but all the time necessary in counting. Indeed no amount of precious metals, coined into money, would be sufficient to circulate the trade of the country, according to the practice of remote times, when trade was in its infancy and little understood.*

The money paid and received for 310 days in the year in the metropolis, through the medium of bankers, cannot amount to less on an average than £5,000,000 daily, or £1,550,000,000 in the course of a year, exclusive of the extensive payments made without the intervention of bankers from individual to individual.†

In the present state therefore of the commerce of the country, it would be absolutely impracticable to carry it on without not only a circulation of bank notes to a considerable extent, but also through the medium of bankers. In addition to the velocity given to the circulation by means of drafts or checks, a refinement is practised by the major part of the bankers in London by an exchange of checks at a given hour on each day, by which millions are paid and received in the course of an hour, and the balances finally settled by a general assemblage of the collecting clerks of each banker. In no country in the world is this velocity of circulation carried to such a degree of perfection as in the British metropolis.

The exchange of property through a circulating medium, composed of the precious metals, is perfectly impracticable, independent of the almost incalculable expence of it

* A refinement in giving velocity to the circulating medium, by uniting many bankers into one for their private convenience, is practised by about two-thirds of the 71 private bankers of the metropolis, comprising chiefly those who reside in the city. According to the Report of the Bullion Committee, the daily payments made to these bankers (46 in number) amount on an average to £4,700,000. If that sum were to be paid daily by one debtor to his creditor, without the intervention of banking, and *in coins* even of gold of one guinea each, the multitude of people that would be required to convey the specie from place to place would crowd the metropolis from one end to the other, since even more than £4,700,000 would probably be wanted. To make payments in all the variety of sums, which would be necessary by the customers of the whole 71 bankers and the Bank of England, it might require five, ten, or perhaps twenty times £4,700,000 daily: as the matter however is contrived, instead of this enormous sum of £4,700,000 in coin, these daily payments, amounting in a year to fourteen hundred and fifty-seven millions, are made by means of the comparatively trifling sum of £220,000 daily for 310 days, or sixty-eight yearly. The merchants agree, that their orders on their respective bankers shall not be presented until the end of the day, when these 46 bankers meet and settle and exchange all the drafts and orders on each other, paying the difference in Bank notes, which is calculated to amount on an average to £220,000 a day. If about two thirds of the private bankers in London pay one thousand five hundred millions yearly for a part of their customers, how much must that yearly sum be increased by what the whole of the bankers and the Bank of England pay, including the public revenue and loans, the latter exceeding one hundred millions alone? When it is considered also, that the vast and almost incalculable number of payments are all accomplished by means of about twenty millions in Bank notes, the velocity of its circulation will appear to be most truly astonishing.

† It is no less curious than singular to observe, that to count 5,000,000 of guineas, at the rate of a guinea every second, and working twelve hours a day, would employ one person nearly four months.

to the nation;—first, from the capital which must be sunk and rendered totally unproductive, which might otherwise give vigour and energy to productive industry,—and second by the loss which must arise from deterioration by sweating and by wear.* To the saving of this capital, although not hitherto obvious, Great Britain is indebted for much of that wealth by which she has been distinguished beyond rival nations.

The United Kingdom from its insular situation enjoys peculiar advantages with respect to a circulating medium, which can never be enjoyed by any continental government,—namely, what is called public credit.

It is a species of confidence in the resources of the state and the stability of individuals engaged in commerce and manufactures, which is to be found in no other country. It is not the King's credit. It is not the credit of Parliament. It is that which springs from the happy concoction of all the vital juices of the national frame, producing that which in matter of finance is called *punctuality*. Its precise seat in the body politic cannot be discovered, and yet it is that which gives to substance its functions.

It is *public credit*, supported by *punctuality* in the transactions between man and man,—and it is the banking system, stimulated by the confidence in the solidity of the circulating medium of the national banks and bankers of known opulence, which enables men, engaged in trade and commerce, to give effect to that *punctuality* which generates *confidence*.

This confidence gives energy to commercial enterprise. It is the peculiar character of Great Britain; and distinguishes this country from all the nations of the earth, and from France in particular.

The banking system, having been in a state of gradual improvement during the last and the present century, has at length reached a state of perfection, producing in the result those energies in trade and commerce by which this country has been so generally elevated in the scale of nations. The system however derives its existence and its power from agriculture, trade, commerce, and manufactures. It is the land and labour of the country, in all the branches of productive industry, that give employment to the bankers. It is the bankers, by holding in deposit a proportion of the active capitals of the country joined to their own, that from the structure of their system produce that *punctuality* which constitutes public credit, which is supported by an active capital obtained by anticipations, when an inactive capital composed of goods or bills of exchange cannot be turned into money to answer current

* On the supposition that £100,000,000 sterling of guineas were put in circulation at the commencement of a century, in the course of ninety-eight years the compound interest upon this dead capital, independently of the deterioration or diminution of the weight of the coin would amount, after deducting the original capital, to no less than *sixty-three thousand millions*. If therefore a paper circulation could be supported on proper principles, the nation, availing itself of this substitute for gold, would be richer than the nation which required the same extent of circulating medium and made use of the precious metals, as in France, to the extent of the immense sum above-mentioned.

demands with that exact punctuality by which alone public credit can be supported.

The banking system therefore has become a necessary and useful auxiliary to the general circulation of the country. They are so interwoven that the one could not, in the present state of the trade and commerce of the country, exist without the other. Let the facility which now prevails in obtaining money on discounts be taken away,—let the trade of banking cease to exist, and the whole fabric of public credit will instantly fall to the ground. The bankers therefore participate in the profits, and share in the new property obtained by land and by manufactures, trade, and commerce, fisheries, and foreign income. They belong to no particular class. They are connected with and afford accommodation to the whole.

Yet useful as the system of banking is, and perfect as is its organization, it is still not without blemishes in its subordinate branches, which frequently trench on the great bulwark of punctuality—*public credit*; which has occasionally been shaken to its very foundation from a deficiency in the principle upon which banking ought to be founded,—that of absolute security to the public as far as legislative regulations can operate in promoting unquestionable stability:—a measure certainly practicable, at least to an extent which would prevent many of those evils and distresses arising from the frequent failure, particularly of the provincial bankers (who circulate their own notes without any pledge of solidity given to the public) by trust investments in the public funds and by ceasing to be traders the moment they become bankers.

The banking system in the United Kingdom has been rapidly increasing during the last forty years; and consists at present of five chartered companies and about eight hundred and sixty-six private banking establishments, of which about seven hundred and eighty-four are presumed to issue their own notes.

CHARTERED BANKS.

1. In England.	The National Chartered Bank, denominated the Bank of England, the capital of which cannot be estimated at less than	£ 25,000,000
3. In Scotland.	The Bank of Scotland The Royal Bank The British Linen Company	presumed capitals when united 3,500,000
1. In Ireland.	The National Bank of Ireland, presumed capital	2,000,000
5		
72	Private Bankers in London, whose capitals united may be estimated at about 4,000,000	
77	carried over.	£34,500,000

77	Brought over	Brought over	£ 34,500,000
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COUNTRY BANKERS IN ENGLAND.

195	banking establishments where there are three and upwards in the principal towns in England	} 2,000,000
464	banking establishments, having one and two in the smaller towns	} 2,000,000

BANKERS IN SCOTLAND.

43	banking establishments, where there are three and upwards in the principal towns	} 800,000
29	banking establishments, where there are one and two in the inferior towns	
As a large proportion of these are branches of the chartered banks, whose capitals are already stated, the private capitals may be estimated at about		

BANKERS IN IRELAND.

30	banking establishments in Dublin, Cork, Waterford, Belfast, and other large towns, whose limited capitals may possibly amount to	} 700,000
33	banking establishments in the smaller towns, whose united capitals may possibly amount to	
871	Total*	£40,700,000

Thus we see that five chartered banks, and eight hundred and sixty-six private banks are presumed to possess upwards of £40,000,000 of capital. There can be no doubt of the Bank of England being the richest corporation in the world, and still more that its circulation, namely about £25,000,000, has at least, within the last seven years, been less than the assets of the company. And as the public debt

* In thus estimating the capitals of the different private bankers in Great Britain, it must be obvious to the reader that accuracy to a point is impracticable; an approximation to the truth is therefore all that can be expected. The number of bankers in Great Britain has been pretty nearly ascertained; but those in Ireland depend a good deal on conjecture. In that country, notwithstanding the excellent regulations imposed by law, the same abuses are said to prevail as in England, where in many instances men possessing little or no property issue promissory notes in almost every provincial town. The national banks of England and Ireland differ from all others, inasmuch as their capitals being lent to the state the security of the nation is pledged to the public to the extent of their capitals; and moreover their notes, by becoming legal tenders, acquire the same validity in point of law as coin, which is its own representative, whereas the national Bank notes are represented by the property of the country to the extent of the sums deposited or lent to the state. No doubt can be entertained of there being many provincial bankers in the country of great opulence, and who possess ample capitals; but there are also numbers of a contrary description, and the difference between these and the national banks is, that the solidity of the latter is certain, while that of the former, particularly of those who are traders, is always uncertain.

is always equal to the circulating paper, it may fairly be considered to be in all respects the same as government securities.* It acquires an additional solidity also from the circumstance of the promissory notes of the Bank of England being not only a legal tender in the payment of the national revenue, but also of the debts of individuals. In these respects the circulating paper of the national bank acquires by the sanction of law all the properties of money, since the possession of these notes enables all ranks of the community to satisfy every demand which may be made, and by such payments a quietus ensues.

The interference of the legislature has seldom occurred in the economy of trade except for the purpose of affording facilities, as in the case of bills of exchange and promissory notes, under a conviction of the great advantage of economizing the use and thereby preventing the expence of the common circulating medium in a country where trade and commerce have become so extensive. Hence every indorser of a bill is liable for its whole amount, and except in peculiar cases no proof is required in an action at law of the consideration given.

With the credit upon open account and the credit upon security, (as already mentioned) the two great means of economizing the circulating medium of the state, the government and the legislature have never interfered except to afford protection and encouragement to those contrivances, by allowing the set-off in actions at law in the first, and by the laws favourable to the public security in the second.

Until the year 1797, the legislature or the executive government had never interfered in respect to the trade of banking further than to limit the partners in any one establishment in England to six individuals, probably with a view to prevent any considerable rivalship with the great national bank. But when notes are circulated by such private bankers, which is generally the case in the country, where a considerable profit arises from such circulation at the expence of the public, it should seem fair and reasonable that like the national bank a sum of money in proportion to the extent of such circulation should be placed in the public funds under trust as a security to the public against insolvency, and as a further security *that such bankers should be concerned in no other trade.* The convulsion in commercial credit which has been experienced so repeatedly within the last forty years, and the public injury, both political and commercial, which has arisen from this source appears to plead strongly for the application of some legislative remedy.

* The capital of the Bank of England, divided among 25,000 proprietors or thereabouts, is here stated at £25,000,000, although an intelligent writer, in a tract entitled the Theory of Money &c. published in 1811, makes the following observations:—

“ The whole capital of the Bank of England of £11,686,800—3 per Cent. Stock at the price	}	£32,492,302
of 278 per Cent. was worth in January, 1810		
“ The same capital of 3 per Cent. Stock at the price of 126 per Cent. being double the value	}	11,725,368
of any other public creditors 3 per Cent. Stock, was worth in January, 1797		
“ So that the 3 per Cent. Stock, belonging to and constituting the Capital of the Bank, in	}	£17,666,934
creased in value from February 1797 to January, 1810.		

Whatever the conflicting opinion may be on the subject of the notes of the Bank of England, or on the question as to their depreciation, which it is not the province of the author to discuss in a work of this nature; all must agree that from the period when the national bank was restrained from issuing specie, there has been a progressive prosperity, and a self evident accumulation of wealth manifested, not only by the ease and facility with which immense loans have been obtained for the exigencies of the state, which had not been experienced in an equal degree before that period; but also by the more general diffusion of apparent wealth among the middling as well as the higher classes of society who, notwithstanding the accumulation of taxes and the unexampled high prices of all the necessaries and luxuries of life, have both in their habitations and mode of living exhibited appearances which indicate an accession of property progressively increasing within the last sixteen years which was not obvious during the same period anterior to 1797.

To this may be added the increased capitals which the greatly augmented agriculture, trade, commerce, and manufactures of the country required, and the vast accumulation of great public works in *docks, canals, bridges*, and other expensive undertakings, together with the almost unexampled number of costly mansions and houses of a superior class which have been built within this period, and which greatly exceed those erected during the preceding sixteen years.

It is not easy to ascertain the extent of the circulation of Bank paper in the whole of Great Britain and Ireland, but when it is considered that a medium must be found for the purpose of exchanging the new property created every year, now estimated at £430,521,372, it is highly probable that in both countries the whole circulation, including about £15,000,000 of specie, cannot fall much short of £80,000,000. Although the notes of the Bank of England circulate with a velocity and by ramifications which are inconceivable in the metropolis, and perhaps twenty miles round it, yet beyond that distance these notes are seldom seen. The superior advantages they possess naturally induce the country bankers to hoard them up as a security against sudden and extensive demands upon them. And the same is probably the case with respect to the notes of the Bank of Ireland. The notes therefore of the country bankers may be supposed to circulate the property of at least three fourth parts of the population of the United Kingdom.

Bank notes, in as far as they perform the functions of metallic money, appear to be regulated in point of amount or quantity by the same principle which regulates the other articles of life which are desirable to man,—where nothing is supplied beyond the actual demand. He therefore who wishes to possess the notes of bankers must do so as a matter of convenience or profit. It is the acquisition of the credit of certain responsible or supposed responsible individuals, manifested by the symbol of Bank notes, that is desirable, because they perform the functions of what has been in all civilized countries denominated money. To acquire these symbols however an equivalent must be given in one shape or other, while the mere possession subjects the holder to a

certain daily expence of interest. Under such circumstances, there must be an advantage either within the grasp or in the contemplation of the holder beyond the value of the interest; and in this view of the case, the supply can never exceed the demand. And hence it should seem that wherever a circulation of Bank paper exists, it can remain no longer than the wants of the holders require. It must speedily return back to the issuers wherever a surplus is forced into circulation. It appears impossible to fix any legislative limit. The quantity of this species of circulating medium will always be regulated by the demand. When the supply is found insufficient, a scarcity is immediately felt. And according to the common phrase, money is scarce; on the contrary when there appears to be a redundancy, as frequently happens after the dividends are paid, then money is found to be abundant; but until a less interest than 5 per cent. can be obtained, the circulating medium cannot be said to be overcharged.

The same would be the case with a superabundant quantity of metallic money, with this difference however, that if the price of gold or silver for the time being did not admit of its conversion into bullion, the redundancy would be felt as a weight upon the community, since it could not like Bank notes find its level. The supply might be greater than the demand, without the possibility of a reduction; and the interest of money would be reduced, and a depreciation would ensue. This superabundance of the precious metals, from the period when the South American mines began to deluge Europe with bullion, rapidly reduced the standard value, and by confounding it with what is called money, a considerable period elapsed before it was discovered that the precious metals were as much a commodity, and an article of commerce, as any other merchandize, subject to the same fluctuations in point of value as other goods, and regulated as to price by the abundance or the scarcity in any one country.

That a scarcity should exist in the world at large is impossible, since all the gold and silver which existed at the earliest periods which history records with the vast accumulation since the first discovery of America until the present time must exist somewhere, in bars, ingots, coins, plate, jewels, and other ornaments, except that small proportion which may have been consumed in plated and other manufactures, or in gilding, or lost in the ocean, or buried under ground and not discovered. While the mines continue to produce, there must be an accumulation every year of the precious metals; and yet under circumstances where commercial intercourse may be interrupted or suspended and where extensive wars prevail, it has happened and will always be found that scarcities will occasionally be felt, since like every other article of commerce it will be attracted to that spot where the highest price can be obtained. Its portable nature,* affording great faci-

* A cube of gold of little more than five inches on each side contains the value of £10,000 sterling, and masses of that size can be exported and imported, and removed from one country to another with the greatest ease, notwithstanding the prohibitory restrictions which exist in most of the countries in Europe. The same value in ponderous merchandize, either shipped to foreign countries or removed by land carriage, would cost in most instances one hundred times the expence.

lities with respect to conveyance from one country to another, joined to the ease with which it can be converted into coin for the purpose of supporting armies in a state of warfare, must occasion great fluctuation in the price,—and occasion temporary scarcities, arising from the disposition to conceal the precious metals in periods of public danger. In more tranquil times, that nation which has the greatest quantity of exportable articles will always possess a large proportion of the precious metals; and this will be the situation of this country when the calamities of war shall cease to afflict the world.

On a minute investigation of the British commerce it will be found, that the exports are more valuable than the public documents make them, while the imports are less; and hence the balance is greater in favour of the country than is generally supposed; but in a war so extensive, and with colonies, dependencies, and navies and armies in every quarter of the world, this balance has for the last twenty years been nearly swallowed up by the enormous drafts upon the British treasury for subsidies to foreign princes,—for the expences of the army, navy, and ordnance abroad,—the allowances to British governors and courts of justice, fortifications, and expensive barrack establishments,—the salaries of various officers in the revenue and other civil departments in fifty-three different colonies and dependencies, ramifying in all directions, and amounting to many millions yearly, independently of the payment of the dividends on the public debt due to foreigners. The balance of trade therefore is not remitted in bullion to this country in the present state of things, but is actually paid out of the revenues of the country.

When the period however shall arrive, rendering such enormous expences no longer necessary, and commerce shall maintain the proud height to which it has reached, a large proportion of the balance in favour of these kingdoms, which is now expended abroad, will ultimately center in this country. And hence it may be expected that the precious metals will fill up the chasm, and become so abundant as to reduce the prices below the mint standard, namely £46 14 6 for every pound of sterling gold.

It will then be found that the proportion of gold coin, which will be required by the public in exchange for the paper of the Bank of England, will sink to nothing when compared to the immense amount of created and imported property which requires to be circulated in the course of a year, which cannot be estimated at less than £491,000,000.* It is highly probable, considering the superior convenience of Bank paper and the velocity with which the circulating medium of the

* Amount of property created in the course of the year, including foreign income	1812	£430,521,372
Amount of the value of goods imported	1812	60,424,876
(See Tables No. 3, pages 96 and 100.)		
	Total	£490,946,248

United Kingdom revolves, that about twenty millions of gold coin would be amply sufficient to answer every demand of the holders of Bank paper.

A new æra appears to be at no great distance when, by payments in specie issued from the different banking establishments, every doubt will be solved with respect to the depreciation of the circulating medium arising from a supposed excessive issue of promissory notes. If these payments in metallic money shall reduce the prices of all the articles of the first necessity to the standard of 1793, then it will be evident that a depreciation has taken place in the value of the existing circulating medium. But it requires no foresight to discover, that whoever expects such a change to be worked by the re-appearance of the quantity of gold coin then in circulation will be deceived, unless by some unfortunate change in the circumstances of the country the supply of every article of subsistence shall exceed the demand, which the progressive increase of the population and of every species of productive industry renders highly improbable.

Upon the whole it may be fairly assumed, that without the aid of the banking system, and without a very extensive circulation of Bank paper, it would be morally impossible to carry on the trade and commerce of the country. The facilities this system affords in the circulation and exchange of every article of productive industry are beyond all calculation, while it has been already seen that the national saving by substituting this medium for gold is astonishing.

The great desideratum is to place the notes of bankers on such a footing as shall render the holders secure, not only by fixed limits to the circulation, but by a deposit of public securities, which shall prevent the risk of insolvency, and establish the most perfect confidence in the mind of the public with regard to their security. It belongs to the legislature of the country to effect this desirable object; and as no doubt can be entertained either of its practicability, or of the salutary consequences which will result from it, an ardent hope is cherished that it will be speedily adopted; by which a bulwark will be established with respect to the commercial credit of the country through the medium of a perfectly organized banking system, which cannot fail to reduce greatly the number of bankruptcies, while it tends in its operation to raise the country to the highest pitch of prosperity, rendering it the envy of every other nation, which, not possessing an insular territory, can never enjoy the same advantages.

FOREIGN INCOME.

On a reference to the very interesting Table No. 3, page 97 and 98, following this chapter, it will be seen that the new property created yearly in the colonies and dependencies annexed to the British crown, arising from land and labour, is estimated, exclusive of the territories under the direction of the East India Company, at £50,740,470 sterling a year,—namely,

The Dependencies of the British Crown in Europe	£1,818,000
The British Colonies in North America	13,215,474
The British Colonies in the West Indies	18,516,540
The Captured Colonies in the West Indies	10,195,926
The British and Captured Settlements in Africa	800,300
The British and Captured Settlements or Colonies in Asia	6,194,230
Total	£50,740,470

From all these settlements a certain portion of the surplus property of the inhabitants centers yearly in the parent state, and amalgamates with the national property. That however which arises from the land and labour of the West India Colonies is by far the most productive, since the sugar produced on the different estates is, with some few exceptions, generally considered as surplus property, while the rum, melasses, and other inferior productions have been found sufficient to defray the island expences. The deductions therefore apply only to such articles of food and manufactures as are supplied by the parent state, and to lumber, fish, and provisions from the colonies in North America and the United States. What remains is either partly expended in this country by the resident proprietors, or is applied to the discharge of loans made by British mortgagees, or where no debts are due, the residue is either invested in the funds, or in the purchase of lands, houses, or other property; so that under all circumstances, the active capital of the nation is thus annually augmented, although not always to the advantage of the proprietors when prices are low, but uniformly more or less beneficial to the parent state.

This species of property is likely to be greatly augmented if the captured colonies in the East and West Indies are retained, which together are estimated to produce £16,390,156 sterling yearly. From the other colonies and settlements the surplus labour which may be expected to center in the parent country will be much less in proportion, but from all of them something may be expected, since wherever fortunes are made by British subjects residing in any of the detached or distant possessions of the crown, these fortunes ultimately center in Great Britain and Ireland.

Of all the transmarine possessions of the crown, the territories under the guidance of the East India Company produce most from land and labour, supposed upon a very low estimate to amount to £211,966,494 sterling a year; but as a very large proportion is necessarily expended in supporting the vast population and the expences of government, the fortunes of individuals residing in India and transmitted yearly to the United Kingdom are all that can be considered as falling under the denomination of foreign income. It has for a series of years been very considerable, and there is no doubt of a regular and permanent increase of national wealth being derived from this source,—as well as from all the dependencies of the crown, when war shall cease to render expensive armaments for their protection necessary, and when leisure shall be afforded to those who exercise the powers of government to devise and carry into effect those measures which shall tend to render the labour of his Majesty's transmarine subjects more extensive, producing gradually that degree of opulence which shall ultimately relieve the parent state of the expences of their civil and military establishments.

The aggregate foreign income is stated in the Table, No. 3, page 96, as amounting only to £5,000,000 sterling a year; but there are strong grounds to believe that it considerably exceeds this sum, and that it must progressively increase every year.

CONCLUSION OF THE CHAPTER.

In taking a general view of the various means by which the new property is acquired yearly in the British empire from its agriculture, manufactures, trade, commerce, navigation, fisheries, and foreign income, the magnitude and splendour of the resources which have been thus developed cannot fail to fill the mind of every British subject with exultation and gratitude to the Supreme Being for the numerous blessings conferred on this highly favoured nation.

In the approximating values which are set upon the territories captured from the enemy, we see what the nation has acquired and the extent also of the advantages to be derived annually from the land and labour of the people in these colonies. But what is of no less importance, we see, and the enemy will also see the sacrifices we make and the benefit he derives from negotiations which shall place these possessions, or any part of them, again under his dominion. In former negotiations these advantages and benefits were but imperfectly understood, since till on the present occasion it does not appear that any attempt has been made to examine minutely by the rules of political arithmetic the various component parts which constitute the wealth of the British empire, and the annual returns of its land and labour in the specific form in which it is now brought under the review of the public,

AN ATTEMPT TO ESTIMATE THE NEW PROPERTY CREATED ANNUALLY IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND;

Arising from the Use of Capital combined with Human Labour and Machinery, in raising various sorts of Grain and Animal Food, and in converting various Raw Materials into Manufactures and Fabrics, as derived from *Agriculture, Mines and Minerals, Manufactures, Inland Trade, Foreign Commerce and Shipping, Coasting Trade, Fisheries, and Foreign Income.* (1812.)

AGRICULTURE.

	Quarters.	s.	d.		£.
GRAIN, viz:—Wheat - - - - -	9,170,000	at	70 6 *	per Quarter.	32,324,250
(A) Barley - - - - -	6,335,000	—	37 - -	do. - - - - -	11,719,750
Oats - - - - -	16,950,000	—	29 - -	do. - - - - -	24,577,500
Rye - - - - -	685,000	—	43 10 -	do. - - - - -	1,501,291
Beans and Peas - - -	1,860,000	—	38 10	averaged ditto.	3,611,500
					£ 73,734,291
HAY, GRASS, STRAW and FITCHES. - - - - -					89,200,000
FIELD TURNIPS. - - - - -					14,200,000
POTATOES for Consumption, including Potatoes for Cattle and Exportation. - - -					15,923,626
GARDEN STUFFS—estimating 15,000 acres to be in Gardens, including Wall-fruit, at 40l. per Acre. - - - - -					600,000
NURSERIES - - - about 5,000 Acres at 50l. per Acre. - - - - -					250,000
ORCHARDS—about 100,000, averaging an Acre each, 100,000 Acres at 20l. per Acre. - - - - -					2,000,000
					£195,907,917

Continued - - - £195,907,917

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

(A) Species of Grain.	Estimated Average of the Population of Great Britain and Ireland.	Each Person Averaged	Consumed by Man.	Consumed by Animals.	Used in Beer and Spirits.	Used in various Manufactures.	Total of Quarters.
		Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.	
Wheat - - - - -	9,000,000	1	9,000,000	.	.	170,000	9,170,000
Barley - - - - -	1,500,000	1½	1,875,000	210,000	4,250,000	.	6,335,000
Oats - - - - -	4,500,000	1½	6,750,000	10,200,000	.	.	16,950,000
Rye - - - - -	500,000	1½	625,000	59,000	.	1,000	685,000
Beans and Peas - - -	500,000	1	500,000	1,360,000	.	.	1,860,000
Totals . . .	16,000,000		18,750,000	11,829,000	4,250,000	171,000	35,000,000

PROGRESSIVE CONSUMPTION.

Consumption.	Wheat.	Other Grain.	Total.
	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.
One Year - - - - -	9,170,000	25,830,000	35,000,000
Six Months - - - - -	4,585,000	12,915,000	17,500,000
Three Months - - - - -	2,292,500	6,457,500	8,750,000
Six weeks - - - - -	1,146,250	3,228,750	4,375,000
One month - - - - -	764,166	2,152,500	2,916,666
Two weeks - - - - -	382,083	1,076,250	1,458,333
One Week - - - - -	191,041	538,125	729,166
One Day - - - - -	27,291	76,875	104,166

(B) According to an intelligent practical Farmer in Norfolk, Horses in farming cost for their Feeding in Grass 22 weeks (from the 12th May to the 13th Oct.) at 4s. 6d. per week, 4l. 19s. Hay 2 cwt. per week, 13l. 10s. Oats 2 bushels per week, 11l. 5s. Total 29l. 14s. Cows and Fat Bullocks, grass 27 weeks at 3s. per week 4l. 1s. Hay in the winter season 25 weeks 1½ cwt. per week at 3s. 6d. per cwt. 6l. 11s. 3d. Turnips half an acre, 3l. Total 13l. 12s. 3d. Sheep 6d. a-head per week for the year 1l. 6s. Moderate as this computation may be, we have as an average preferred a still less in order to place the matter beyond all dispute, thus:—

Horses in Great Britain and Ireland, estimated at 1,800,000, at 45s. each for grass, 4,050,000l.: for Hay at 6l. 10s. each 11,700,000l. exclusive of Straw, which at 5s. for each horse would amount to 450,000l.—Total 16,200,000l.

Horned Cattle in Great Britain and Ireland, estimated on 10,000,000 at 40s. each for grass, 20,000,000l.; for Hay at 60s. each, 30,000,000l.; for field Turnips at 20s. each, 10,000,000l.; to which may be added Straw at 4s. each, 2,000,000l.—Total, 62,000,000l.

Sheep and Lambs in Great Britain and Ireland, estimated at 42,000,000, at 10s. each for grass 21,000,000l.; and for Turnips at 2s. each, 4,200,000l.—Total, 25,200,000l.

Namely:—For Hay 41,700,000 l.—Grass 45,050,000l.—Straw 2,450,000l.—Total (including Fitches) 89,200,000l. And Turnips 14,200,000l.

Potatoes are the chief article of food in Ireland; of course the consumption is very considerable. This article, taken at a very moderate average for the consumption of each family per week throughout Great Britain and Ireland, amounts to 11,923,626l. The Potatoes used for cattle and exportation every year may be fairly estimated at 4,000,000l.—Total 15,923,626l.

* The several kinds of Grain are taken at 50 per cent. less than the average prices in the Public Markets of the 12th September, 1812.

AN ATTEMPT TO ESTIMATE THE NEW PROPERTY CREATED ANNUALLY IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND;

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AGRICULTURE, Continued.										£.	£.					
										Continued	195,907,917					
WOOL	-	-	-	-	(See Explanatory Notes (B) and (H)	-	-	-	-	5,159,707						
HOPS—about 100,000 Acres, the produce of which at 15 <i>l.</i> per Acre would amount (including Labour in Hop-picking, &c.) to										-	1,500,000					
HEMP and Flax, including the Labour										-	(C) 4,500,000					
SEEDS, &c. as Rape Seed, Mustard Seed, Cole Seed, and other Seeds, and Liquorice, Labour inclusive.										-	100,000					
KELP										Idem.	50,000					
DUNG for Manure										Idem.	1,000,000					
BUTTER and CHEESE, including Labour in the Dairy, deducting for Milk, the Material from which they are made.										-	(D) 5,000,000					
LABOUR (exclusive of the Cost of feeding) in the rearing and management of Cattle, Horses, Sheep, Pigs, Poultry, &c. may be estimated at 10 per Cent. on the Value of the Animals sold and consumed (E), thus :—																
										£.	s.	d.	£.			
300,000 Horses										at	13	6	8	each	4,000,000	
210,000 Bullocks										at	20	0	0	Idem	4,200,000	
480,000 Calves										at	5	0	0	Idem	2,400,000	
1,900,000 Sheep and Lambs										at	2	0	0	Idem	3,800,000	
450,000 Hogs										at	2	0	0	Idem	900,000	
120,000 Sucking Pigs										at	0	7	0	Idem	42,000	
Rabbits, Poultry, Milk and Eggs										-	-	-	-	658,000		
														£.16,000,000		
10 per Cent on this sum for Labour employed, including the Labour of Shepherds, Sheep-shearers, &c. is										-	-	-	-	1,600,000		
TIMBER annually cut down may be estimated at										-	-	-	-	(F) 2,000,000	—216,817,624	
MINES AND MINERALS.																
COALS—supposing half the Population, 8,000,000, to use 1 Chaldron each, including the Consumption in Forges, Furnaces, &c. and the Export, viz. 8,000,000 Chaldrons at 10 shillings per Chaldron.												£.				
COPPER												4,000,000				
IRON												1,000,000				
LEAD, including Black Lead												1,000,000				
TIN												1,000,000				
SALT, including ALLUM												500,000				
BRICK EARTH												500,000				
MISCELLANEOUS—as Lime Stones, Building Stones, Granite or Paving Stones, Gravel, Sand, Chalk, Slate, &c.												500,000				
												—9,000,000				
												Continued	£.225,817,624			

EXPLANATORY NOTES Continued.

(C) It appears from the Financial Accounts for 1812 under the head of Trade and Navigation, that the *flax Seed* imported into Great Britain and Ireland for an average of the 3 years ended the 5th of January in 1810, 1811, and 1812, amounted to 484,698*l.* (*Real Value*) which being estimated to yield ten times its value in flax, the *Flax* annually produced together with *Hemp* cannot be taken at less than 4,500,000*l.*

(D) The Export of *Butter* from Ireland, as per Financial Accounts for Ireland for 1812, on an average of the years 1810, 1811, and 1812, ended on the 5th of January amounted in *Real Value* to 1,457,642*l.* The value of the same article exported from Great Britain cannot be ascertained, as it is included under the head of Provisions. The Consumption of *Butter* and *Cheese* among all Classes of the Community in Great Britain and Ireland must be very considerable. These two articles cannot be estimated at less than 5,000,000*l.*, exclusive of the value of the Milk, the raw Material.

(E) The Horses reared and brought to maturity every year, also Cattle, Sheep, Goats, Hogs, and other Animals, and Milk sold or consumed being all a newly created Property every year, yet being produced by the Corn, Hay, Grass and other Provender which have been already valued, they do not of course come within this Estimate, although as the Farmers who rear these Animals may be reasonably supposed to have a profit for their labour over and above the actual value of the Provender by which they were reared, it is thought fair to add that profit to the general Estimate, since when they pass into the hands of the Consumer, it is in most instances increased beyond the actual value of the food by which they have been reared. It is difficult to ascertain how much the actual cost to the purchasers of young Horses, or to the consumers of animal food, may amount beyond the actual cost of the Provender by which they were reared, but supposing 300,000 Horses to be sold, and 690,000 Horned Cattle, 1,900,000 Sheep and Lambs, and other Animals, as Hogs, Sucking Pigs, Poultry, and Rabbits, besides Milk and Eggs to be consumed in the course of the year to the value of 16,000,000*l.* it may be fair to add 10 per Cent, upon this value, as the profit of the Rearers of these animals, which being an addition to the other property annually created is added to the general estimate.

(F) Dr. Beeke in his Observations on the Income Tax, pages 36 and 37, supposes the *Timber* on Estates to be near the value of 2 years of the clear Rent of the Land, and deducting 5 per Cent. on this value, the annual Income from this source after a further allowance of 1-5th for Repairs, he estimates to be 1,600,000*l.* per Annum for Great Britain:—Taking the proportion of 400,000*l.* for Ireland, the *Timber* annually cut down in Great Britain and Ireland may fairly amount to 2,000,000*l.*

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MANUFACTURES.		Continued	£.	£.
				225,817,624
COTTON GOODS, including the Labour of the numerous Men, Women, and Children employed in the Cotton Manufacture in all its branches, also including the labour of Callico Printers, Callenderers, Bleachers of Cotton, Lawn and Muslin dressers, Embroiderers of Gauze, Tambourers of Muslin, Stocking dressers, Stitchers and Trimmers of Hose, &c. after deducting for the Value of the Raw Material - - - (G)		23,000,000		
WOOLLENS, including Manufactures from Spanish Wool, in the Value of which is comprehended the Labour of the Men, Women, and Children employed in every branch of the Woollen Manufacture, after deducting for the Raw Material - - - - - (H)		18,000,000		
LEATHER in Shoes, Boots, Soldiers' Belts, Cartouch-boxes, Sadlery, Harness, Carriages, and a variety of other Articles, including the labour of Tanners, Curriers and Dressers of Leather, Boot and Shoe-makers, Sadlers, Leather Cap-makers, Military Belt and Pouch-makers, Binders of Shoes, Caps, &c. after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - - (I)		12,000,000		
LINENS, including the labour of Flax Dressers, Spinners, Weavers, Bleachers, Callenderers, and various other branches of the Linen Manufacture after deducting for the Raw Material - - - - - (K)		10,000,000		
SAIL CLOTHS, and other Goods in imitation of the Russia Fabric manufactured from Hemp, also Cordage, Twine, and Threads after deducting for the Raw Material - - - - - (L)		3,000,000		
HARDWARE and CUTLERY, including the labour of Workers in Copper, Brass, Pewter, Tin, Lead, Iron, Steel, and other Metals, Pin and Needle makers, after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - (M)		6,500,000		
GLASS, viz.—Plate Glass, and Flint, Crown, broad, green, and blue Glass, including the labour in the Glass Manufacture in all its branches, after deducting for the ingredients, as Pearl Ash, Salt-petre, Sand, &c. - - - (N)		2,000,000		
		Continued	£74,500,000	225,817,624

EXPLANATORY NOTES Continued.

- (G) It appears from the Financial Accounts for Great Britain for 1812, that the *Official Value* of Cotton Manufactures exported from Great Britain on an average of the years ended the 5th January 1810, 1811, and 1812, is 16,127,980*l.* The Export and Consumption of this Article may amount to 29,000,000*l.*, from which is to be deducted 6,000,000*l.* for the raw Material, leaving 23,000,000*l.* The numerous Articles into which Cotton has been manufactured have greatly increased in value of late years; particularly the finer Fabrics, as Tamboured and Embroidered Muslins, some of which may not contain more than a pound of Cotton, yet may, by Machinery and Labour, be raised to the value of 20*l.*
- (H) A respectable and intelligent Manufacturer, who was examined before a Committee of the House of Commons in 1800, estimated the Produce of the Woollen Manufacture at 19,000,000*l.* a year. And Mr. M'Arthur, in 1803, valued the whole, including the fine Fabrics from foreign Wool, at 25,560,000*l.* We see by Lord Sheffield's printed Report at the Meeting at Lewes Wool Fair on the 27th July 1812 that on a medium of the 6 years from 1806 to 1811 both inclusive, there was imported 7,329,795 pounds of Spanish Wool; the average price of which on the 16th July 1812 was 7*s.* 9*d.* per pound. The Manufactures from British Wool may be estimated at 20,000,000*l.* And those from Spanish Wool at perhaps 6,000,000*l.* Total 26,000,000*l.* allowing 8,000,000*l.* for the raw Materials, the net value will be 18,000,000*l.*
- (I) Sir F. Eden, in 1803, estimated the *Leather* annually manufactured into various Articles in Great Britain at 12,000,000*l.* It is observable that we have no data by which an Estimate can be made. Since, however, not only the Consumption but the Export of Leather has considerably increased since he wrote, for to the general use of this Article in Shoes, Sadlery, Carriages, &c. for a Population of more than 16,000,000 of people in Great Britain and Ireland, besides the Dependencies, may be added the Export of immense quantities of Shoes, Military Belts and Pouches, Sadlery, and other Articles made of Leather for our Allies abroad. By the raw Materials is meant the Hides of Animals, of which the quantity produced in Great Britain and Ireland is very considerable; the Import from South America, and other foreign parts is also very great: the Value of these may be fairly taken at 3,000,000*l.* And when we consider the Value of Raw and Tanned Hides imported, which appears from the Financial Accounts for Great Britain for 1812 on an average of the years ended on the 5th January 1810, 1811, and 1812, to amount (in *real Value*) to 887,906*l.*, and the Duties of Customs and Excise on Hides and Skins imported into Great Britain and Ireland for the Year ended the 5th January 1812 to 422,470*l.* and the value of those the production of Great Britain and Ireland, also the increased value of the labour in all the branches of the Leather Manufacture; the Manufactures of Leather may be fairly estimated at 15,000,000*l.* from which is to be deducted 3,000,000*l.* for the Hides and Skins, as already mentioned, leaves 12,000,000*l.*
- (K) We see by the Financial Accounts for Great Britain and Ireland for 1812, that the average *Real Value* of the Export of *Linens* for the years ended on the 5th January in 1810, 1811 and 1812, was 5,764,760*l.* This sum added to the consumption, including linens that are not stamped manufactured for domestic Use, cannot amount to less than 15,000,000*l.*; from which is to be deducted 3,000,000*l.* for the raw Material. See Note (C) for the value of the flax Seed annually imported into Great Britain and Ireland.
- (L) The consumption of *Hemp* annually in Great Britain is estimated by Sir F. Eden at 2,000,000*l.* We find by the financial Accounts for 1812, that the Import of Rough Hemp into Great Britain and Ireland amounted in *Real Value* to 1,085,586 for an average of the three years ended the 5th of January 1812; and when we consider its increased use in the manufacture of Sail Cloths and Cordage, both for consumption and Exportation, also the manufacture of Goods in imitation of the Russia Fabrics, the Value of these various articles, after deducting the cost of the Hemp, may probably exceed 3,000,000*l.*
- (M) The *Hardware* manufactured at Birmingham, Sheffield, and other places was estimated by F. Eden, in 1803, at 6,000,000*l.* for Great Britain. The Export of different kinds of Hardware to the East and West Indies and Foreign parts having since greatly increased (except to America) added to a considerable increase of Muskets, Swords, Helmets, Breast Plates, Buttons, and various other articles manufactured from Wrought Iron, besides Cannon, Balls, &c. from Cast Iron for the Use of the Military, and for the supply of our Allies abroad, the rough Materials, as Iron, Steel, &c. being deducted, these Manufactures may, for Great Britain and Ireland, be fairly estimated at 6,500,000*l.* The rough Materials by different processes of labour may be raised to great value, as a pound of Steel manufactured into Watch Chains, Beads, and other Ornaments may be increased in some instances even to the value of one hundred Pounds or more.
- (N) The Manufacture of *Glass* is now very considerable from the increased Consumption and Exportation, and from the Importation of Plate-glass having in a great measure ceased. The amount paid for the Duties of Excise and Customs on Glass for the year ended the 5th January 1812 is 881,532*l.* as per the Financial Accounts for Great Britain and Ireland for 1812. The different branches of this Manufacture afford another instance of the value to which Things may be raised by human labour; as in making Lustres, Chandeliers, &c. the Materials for which may not have cost more than 5 or 6*l.* may be increased in value by labour from 500 to 1000 per Cent.

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MANUFACTURES, continued.		
	£.	£.
EARTHEN WARE, CHINA, PORCELAIN, and various Articles from Potteries, including labour in these Manufactures, after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - - (O)	74,500,000	225,817,624
JEWELLERY, GOLD and SILVER PLATE, and WATCHES, including the labour of Workers in Jewellery and Precious Stones, Watch and Clock Makers, and Workers in Articles plated with Silver, &c. after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - - (P)	2,500,000	
PAPER of all sorts, Paste-Board and Paper Hangings, including labour in every branch of the Paper Manufacture, after deducting for the Raw Material - - - - - (Q)	2,000,000	
BOOKS, NEWS-PAPERS, &c. and PRINTING APPARATUS, including the labour of Printers of Books, Gazettes, News-Papers, &c. Printing in general, Bookbinders, &c. after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - - (R)	2,000,000	
SILK, viz,—all sorts of Stuffs and other Articles manufactured of Silk, including labour in all the branches of the Silk Manufacture, after deducting for the Raw Material - - - - - (S)	2,000,000	
PAINTERS' COLOURS, WHITE LEAD, Turpentine, Linseed, Rape, and other Oils, including the labour incident to the Manufactures of White Lead and Painters' Colours, after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - - (T)	1,000,000	
BEER and PORTER, including the Labour in the Manufacture of Malt Liquor of different kinds, after deducting for the Raw Material - - - - - (U)	2,100,000	
CYDER, PERRY, SWEETS, and VINEGAR, including the labour in the Manufacture of each, after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - - (V)	300,000	
SPIRITS, including the labour in the Manufacture of Spirits in the Distilleries, after deducting for the raw Materials; the Strong Waters manufactured in Ireland are also included - - - - - (W)	1,050,000	
BEEF, PORK, BUTTER, and other Provisions—the Labour employed in killing the Animals, and in preparing, packing, and salting these articles for Exportation may be estimated at - - - - - (X)	1,100,000	
Continued	£.90,550,000	225,817,624

EXPLANATORY NOTES Continued.

- (O) The Consumption of *Earthen Ware* is become very general from its cheapness, being used by all classes of the Community. The improvements in *China Ware* have so completely succeeded as to supersede the Import of that Manufacture from China; the labour is expensive, it being a distinct branch to paint China, which together with the Manufacture of Porcelain and Pottery Articles, after excluding the Value of the Clay, Coals in fuel, and other Materials cannot probably be less than 2,500,000 *l.*
- (P) The materials of a *Watch*, it is well known, are of little value; the Labour employed upon it is its chief Value, and with the exception of the Case constitutes its chief cost. This expensive Labour applied also to *Jewellery*, in converting precious Stones into various Trinkets (including the labour of workers of Gold and Silver) which are now so highly ornamented as to amount to double the value of the raw Materials, may be estimated at 2,000,000 *l.*
- (Q) Some idea of the very great Consumption of *Paper* may be formed from the Duties of Excise and Customs on Paper for the year ended 5th January 1812, amounting to 450,681 *l.* for Great Britain and Ireland, as per Financial Accounts for 1812. A considerable quantity of Paper is annually used in Books, Parliamentary Documents and other public Papers, for Sheathing Ships, for Paper Hangings, for Packages, in pasteboard and for Manufactures in Boxes, in Trays, Snuff Boxes, Covering Houses, &c. The raw Materials, consisting of Rags, Oakum, Junk, and other Substances composed chiefly of Hemp and Flax, cannot be considered as forming any material part of the price of the manufactured article in its finished state, and therefore the chief value must be considered to arise from labour combined with machinery.
- (R) The number of *Books* annually printed has considerably increased of late years; the Value of Labour in the different branches of printing has also risen in proportion to the increased value of Labour in other Trades.—Printing, Book-binding, Stitching, and other employments connected with the Press, after deducting for the Paper and metallic Substances, may probably be 2,000,000 *l.*
- (S) The *Raw Silk* imported from the East Indies on an average of the years 1808—9 and 1809—10 amounted to 719,157 *l.* as per Appendix, No. 24, to the 4th Report from the Select Committee on the Affairs of the East India Company, this added to the Import from Italy may amount to 1,000,000 *l.* The Manufactures of this article may be fairly estimated at 2,000,000 *l.*
- (T) By the Financial Accounts for 1812 we find that the export of *Painters' Colours* from Great Britain for the 3 years ended 5th January 1812, averaged in *Real Value* 288,807 *l.* The Consumption greatly exceeds the Export, to which is to be added White Lead, of which a great quantity is used, and which may be regarded as the basis of all Paints and various oils necessary in mixing Painters' Colours and Turpentine:—These, exclusive of the raw Materials, may be taken at 1,000,000 *l.*
- (U) It appears from Sir Frederic Eden "on Insurance," (page 7.) that the annual Consumption of strong and small Beer in Great Britain, in 1803, exceeded 200,000,000 Gallons, which at 1 shilling per Gallon amounts to 10,000,000 *l.*;—And from an authentic document that for the year ended the 1st July 1806, there was brewed 68,238,432 Gallons of Porter and Strong Ale in London. From these data we should be induced to conclude, that there cannot be less than 260,000,000 Gallons of *Porter* and *Beer* brewed annually in Great Britain and Ireland, which at two-pence per gallon for Machinery and Labour amounts to a sum exceeding 2,100,000 *l.* allowing the remaining 10d. per gallon for Malt, Hops, Coals, &c. The immense Consumption of Beer may be ascertained from the Excise, which, according to the Financial Accounts for Great Britain for 1812, is 3,260,948 *l.*
- (V) The Financial Accounts for 1812 have the sum of 96,140 *l.* for the Duties of Excise and Customs on *Cyder, Perry, Sweets, Vinegar, &c.* in Great Britain and Ireland. And when it is considered that Wines are made from different Fruits, as Currants, Gooseberries, Elderberries, &c. the consumption of which is of late years much increased, 300,000 *l.* should seem to be a moderate estimate of the labour in making these Beverages in Great Britain and Ireland.
- (W) We see by the Financial Accounts for Great Britain and Ireland for 1812, that the Duty of Excise on *British Spirits* in Great Britain for the year ended the 5th of January 1812 was 2,233,621 *l.*; and the duty of Excise on *Strong Waters* in Ireland for the same period was 880,313 *l.* Total 3,113,934 *l.* Sir F. Eden, who wrote in 1803, supposed 10,000,000 Gallons of British Spirits to be annually consumed in Great Britain. The British Spirits and Strong Waters annually consumed in Great Britain and Ireland may probably amount to 7,000,000 *l.* and the Labour in the Distilleries not less than 15 per Cent on that Sum, which in round numbers is 1,050,000 *l.*; there being no data for the Estimate.
- (X) All Articles of Provisions, as *Beef, Pork, Butter, &c.* have been already valued under the head of Agriculture; the Labour therefore in killing, preparing, salting, and packing animal food and Provisions for Consumption and Exportation remains to be estimated, which may be fairly taken at 1,100,000 *l.*

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MANUFACTURES, continued.		
	£.	£.
HABERDASHERY, &c. comprising Inkles, Tapes, Fringes, and other Small Wares, Sealing Wax, Wafers, and Ink, including the labour in the Manufacture of these various Articles, after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - - (Y)	90,550,000	225,817,624
STRAW—Labour in the Manufacture of Straw into Hats, Bonnets, Toys, and various other Articles, after deducting for the Raw Material - - - - - (Z)	1,500,000	
GOLD and SILVER LACE, and GOLD LEAF, including the Labour in the Manufacture of these Articles, after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - - (AA)	500,000	
DYE STUFFS, including the Labour in the Manufacture of all sorts of Dye Stuffs, and in dying for private Families, but excluding what applies to the Manufacture of Woollens, Cottons, and other fabricated Articles, after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - -	500,000	
FURS, FEATHERS, and SKINS of Animals, including the labour in the Manufacture of these Articles into Hats, Muffs, Tippets, Trimmings, &c. after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - -	500,000	
HAIR, HOGS' BRISTLES, &c. including the Labour in manufacturing them into Chair and Sofa Bottoms, Hair Cloths, Brushes, and other Articles, after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - -	50,000	
FLOOR CLOTHS, OIL CLOTHS, &c. namely, the labour in the Manufacture of these Articles, and the labour of Floor-Cloth stainers, &c. inclusive, after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - -	500,000	
HOUSEHOLD FURNITURE, as Tables, Chairs, and other Cabinet Ware, exclusive of Carpets and Articles of Woollen Manufacture, and of such other Articles as are included in the above-mentioned Manufactures, including the labour of Cabinet Makers, &c. after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - - (BB)	30,000	
SOAP, including labour in the Manufacture, after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - - (CC)	500,000	
CANDLES, including labour in the Manufacture of Candles from Wax and Tallow, after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - - (DD)	450,000	
BRICKS and TILES, including the labour of Brick-makers, Tile-makers, &c. after deducting for the raw Materials - - - - - (EE)	450,000	
GUNPOWDER, the labour in making it inclusive, after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - - (FF)	700,000	
COOPERAGE, including labour in making Vats, Casks, and various other Articles in that branch, after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - - (GG)	300,000	
TURNERY WARE, including labour in the Manufactures of numerous Articles from Ivory, Bone, Horn, and various Woods, after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - -	500,000	
COACHES, CARRIAGES, WAGGONS, CARTS, and other VEHICLES, including the labour of Coach-makers, Carriage-makers, Wheelwrights, &c. after deducting for the Raw Materials - - - - - (HH)	100,000	
	800,000	
Continued - - - - -	£ 97,930,000	225,817,624

EXPLANATORY NOTES Continued.

- (Y) The Manufactures of all kinds of Tapes, Inkles, Laces, Fringe, and numberless other small wares, employing a considerable number of hands, are very extensive; the individual wants of a population of more than 16,000,000 of people constantly requiring some one or other of the articles commonly classed under the head of *Haberdashery*, the estimate for the Labour employed in all its various branches may be fairly taken at 1,500,000 *l.*
- (Z) *Straw* is an article introduced into this Country, the increase in the use of which has been very rapid and lately become considerable from its Manufacture into Hats and Bonnets, various Ornaments and Toys. It is likewise used in the manufacture of Men's Hats chiefly worn by the Peasantry. We are inclined to believe that from its extensive Consumption the Labour in the different processes may be estimated at 500,000 *l.*
- (AA) The Manufacture of *Gold and Silver Lace*, as Bindings for Uniforms and Liveries, Sword knots and Epaulets for Officers in the Army and Navy, Embroidery in Gold and Silver, Gold Leaf, and many other ornaments, gives employment to a considerable number of Men and Women, whose Labour in all the branches of this manufacture may be fairly estimated at 500,000 *l.*
- (BB) Great Britain and Ireland contain 2,978,391 Houses, as mentioned in another place. Supposing 1,000,000 of these to require some *Furniture*, as Tables, Chairs, Looking Glasses, and other Cabinet Ware annually, which taken at the moderate computation of 50*l.* each including the new Houses would amount to 500,000 *l.* exclusive of the raw Materials.
- (CC) It appears from the Financial Accounts for Great Britain for 1812, that the Excise Duty on *Soap* for the year ended the 5th January 1812 was 716,604*l.* Estimating the Consumption of Soap for 3,000,000 Families in Great Britain and Ireland at four pence each Family per week for washing Table and Bed-linen, and Wearing Apparel, Face and Hands and other purposes would amount to 2,600,000*l.* from which is to be deducted the value of the raw Materials, as Fat, Barilla, Pearl Ashes, and Coals, forming its predominant price, the labour which is comparatively little may be taken at 450,000*l.*
- (DD) The Excise Duty on *Candles*, as per the Financial Accounts presented to Parliament for the year ended the 5th January 1812, was 341,797*l.* Great Britain. This article, of which the Consumption is very great, may average 4*d.* per week for each family, the number of Families in Great Britain and Ireland being taken at 3,000,000 amounts to 2,600,000*l.*; and as the raw Materials constitute its chief value, the Labour employed upon them may be estimated at 450,000*l.*
- (EE) The Earth from which *Bricks and Tiles* are made having been already valued, the Value of the Labour of Brickmakers, Tile-makers, and Labourers, comes now to be considered, which from the general use of these articles in building and repairing Houses, may be fairly estimated at 700,000*l.* The duty of Excise on Bricks and Tiles, as per the Financial Accounts for 1812, amounted to 338,144*l.* in Great Britain for the year ended the 5th of January 1812.
- (FF) The Cost of Salt-petre to the Board of Ordnance for an average of the years 1808-9 and 1809-10 imported from the East-Indies was 139,550*l.* as per Appendix No. 30 to the 4th Report of the Committee on the Affairs of the East India Company; the Brimstone imported into Great Britain for the year ended the 5th January 1812, according to the Financial Accounts for the same year, amounted to 76,052*l.*—Total 215,602*l.* The Labour in converting the raw Materials into *Gunpowder*, of which the use is greatly increased of late years, may be estimated at 300,000*l.*
- (GG) Under the head of *Cooperage* is comprehended Casks and Vats for Liquors, Casks for Provisions, Glass-ware, Earthenware, Haberdashery, Tin-ware, and innumerable other articles, of which the Export is considerable, and generally as Packages for Liquors and Goods of small bulk. The labour in this branch annually may be taken at 500,000*l.*
- (HH) The Wood, Leather, Iron, Varnishes, and other Materials in *Coaches, Carriages, and Vehicles* of all kinds are of comparatively little value with the cost of building and the labour employed upon them, as the Materials for a Coach may not cost 50*l.* and the Coach when finished shall be worth 500*l.* The different branches of labour therefore in making every sort of Carriage, Waggon, Cart, &c. may yearly amount to 800,000*l.*

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MANUFACTURES, continued.		
	£.	£.
SALT and ALLUM, including labour in the Manufacture of these Articles, after deducting for the Raw Materials - (II)	97,930,000	225,817,624
DRUGS, CHEMICAL PREPARATIONS, and Miscellaneous Manufactures of Vitriol, Varnish, Glue, Starch, Perfumery, &c. including the labour in all, after deducting for the raw Materials - - -	300,000	
TOBACCO and SNUFF, including the labour in these Manufactures, after deducting for the raw Materials - - - (KK)	500,000	
REFINED SUGAR, including the Expence of Labour and Machinery in Sugar Refineries, after deducting for the raw Materials - - - (LL)	300,000	
MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS, CORK, TOYS, AND MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES, including the labour of Musical Instrument-makers, Cork Cutters, &c. after deducting for the raw Materials - - -	250,000	
STEAM ENGINES, MACHINERY, MILLS, and MATHEMATICAL-INSTRUMENTS, including the labour of Engine-makers, Millwrights, &c. after deducting for the raw Materials - - - (MM)	200,000	
HOUSES, namely, the increased value of Property created by the labour of a considerable number of persons employed in building and repairing Houses annually, as Masons, Bricklayers, House Carpenters, Joiners, House Smiths, Sash-makers, Lath-renders, Plaisterers, Plumbers, Glaziers, Painters, Paper Hangers, Carvers and Gilders, Sculptors, Slaters, Tilers, Thatchers, and House Labourers, after deducting for the raw Materials - - - (NN)	500,000	
SHIP and BOAT BUILDING and REPAIRING, including the labour of Shipwrights, Boat-builders, Mast and Oar-Makers, Block-makers, Rope-makers, Sail-makers, Riggers, &c. after deducting for the raw Materials - - - (OO)	6,000,000	
MILLERS, MEALMEN, and MALTSTERS:—The two first Classes for their own and Servants' Labour in manufacturing the Grain into Meal and Flour, and the last in manufacturing the Barley into Malt for Brewers and Distillers - - - (PP)	2,000,000	
BUTCHERS, BAKERS of Bread and Biscuit, POULTERERS, FISHMONGERS, PASTRY-COOKS, and CONFECTIONERS for their own and Servants' Labour in preparing the Articles for Consumption - (QQ)	2,500,000	
MISCELLANEOUS TRADES PEOPLE, as Tailors, Mantua-makers, Milleners, Dress-makers, Sempstresses, Slop-makers, &c. employed in making Wearing Apparel, Upholsterers, Umbrella and Parasol-makers, Fan-Trimmers, Shirt and Twist-button makers, Silk Lace Workers, Domestic Spinners, Clear Starchers, Laundresses, and Manglers, for their Labour in their respective branches - - - (RR)	750,000	
FINE ARTS—PAINTINGS, SCULPTURE, ENGRAVINGS, &c. for the estimated value of the Labour, exclusive of the cost of the raw Materials - - - (SS)	2,500,000	
	500,000	114,230,000
Continued - - - - -	£	340,047,624

EXPLANATORY NOTES Continued.

- (II) We find by the Financial Accounts for 1812 that 1,680,323*l.*, the Duty of Excise on *Salt*, was paid in the year ended the 5th January 1812. And that the *Salt* exported from Great Britain on an average of the three years ended the 5th January 1812, amounted in *real* Value to 434,435 *l.* As the labour in the Manufacture of this article is not very great nor expensive, it is presumed it may not exceed 300,000 *l.* per annum.
- (KK) According to the Financial Accounts for Great Britain and Ireland for 1812, the Duties of Customs and Excise including the Consolidated Duties on *Tobacco and Snuff* for the year ended the 5th January 1812, amounted to 1,357,054 *l.* for Great Britain and Ireland. From this immense sum paid in Duties we are naturally led to contemplate the Value of the Tobacco and Snuff annually manufactured, the Labour in which and the Interest on the Capital employed may be fairly stated at 300,000 *l.*
- (LL) The *Refined Sugar* exported from Great Britain on an average of the three years ended the 5th January 1812, amounted (converting the *official* into *real* value) to 1,634,101*l.*, as per Financial Accounts for Great Britain for 1812. The Consumption may perhaps equal the Export; and the Labour in refining Sugar may be estimated at the least at 250,000 *l.*
- (MM) Sir F. Eden, in page 2 of his "Observations, &c. on Insurance," conceives the Sums invested in *Steam Engines* and other expensive Machinery cannot be estimated at less than 40,000,000 *l.* The Labour employed in making Steam Engines, Machinery, Mills, and Musical Instruments, by which the raw Materials are greatly enhanced, is taken at 500,000 *l.*
- (NN) Estimating 50,000 Houses (which is about one sixtieth part of the number contained in Great Britain and Ireland) to be built annually, the Profits and Labour of the different Tradespeople and Workmen employed upon them, averaged at 300 *l.* each, would amount to 15,000,000 *l.*; and 300,000 Houses annually repaired, one with another taken at 10*l.* each, 3,000,000 *l.*—Total 18,000,000 *l.* If from this sum there shall be deducted 12,000,000 *l.*, as the Cost of all the Materials used in building and repairing Houses, there will remain 6,000,000 *l.* for the value of Labour in all the different branches of House building.
- (OO) Sir F. Eden in his "Observation, &c. on Insurance," states 1000 Ships exceeding 100,000 tons to have been annually built in Great Britain. The Tonnage of Ships in 1801, belonging to Great Britain, was 1,725,940 Tons; in the year ended the 30th September 1811 we find it had increased to 2,163,094 Tons, as per the annual Official Account presented to Parliament. Taking however for granted that in consequence of the state of political affairs there has been no increase in the Tonnage of Ships built annually, 100,000 Tons including Repairs of Ships at 20 *l.* per Ton would amount to 2,000,000 *l.* and estimating one half of this sum as the Cost of the Timber, Iron, Hemp, Tar, and other raw Materials, there will be left 1,000,000 *l.* which is probably a fair Estimate of *all the branches of Labour* connected with Ship-building, and the same sum for the Navy. Total 2,000,000 *l.*
- (PP) Some idea may be formed of the Number of *Millers, Mealmen, and Maltsters* in Great Britain and Ireland from the immense quantity of all sorts of Grain annually raised for consumption, for which see Notes (A) (U) and (W). Supposing their number to be 50,000 at an average of 50 *l.* per annum (a very moderate computation for Labour in the present times) the amount would be 2,500,000 *l.*
- (QQ) Computing 15,000 *Butchers, Bread and Biscuit Bakers, Fishmongers, &c.* in Great Britain and Ireland at 50 *l.* each, as the averaged price of their own and Servants' Labour per annum, would amount to 750,000 *l.*
- (RR) This article comprises a numerous Class of the Community, perhaps 100,000 in Great Britain and Ireland, whose labour at the averaged rate of 25*l.* per annum amounts to 2,500,000 *l.*
- (SS) When we consider the great value of Paintings of eminent Artists of the present day and the considerably increased price of Marble in Sculpture, Engravings, and other branches connected with the *Fine Arts*. 500,000 *l.* for Labour may be deemed a very moderate Estimate, especially as the raw Materials,

AN ATTEMPT TO ESTIMATE THE NEW PROPERTY CREATED ANNUALLY IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND;

Arising from the Use of Capital combined with Human Labour and Machinery, in raising various sorts of Grain and Animal Food, and in converting various Raw Materials into Manufactures and Fabrics, as derived from *Agriculture, Mines and Minerals, Manufactures, Inland Trade, Foreign Commerce and Shipping, Coasting Trade, Fisheries, and Foreign Income.* (1812.)

INLAND TRADE.

	£.	£.
Continued - - - - -		340,047,624
Warehousemen and Shopkeepers of all descriptions, for their Labour and Capital employed in collecting and vending British Manufactures of all kinds either immediately to the Consumer or to the Merchant, for Exportation, including foreign Goods imported—estimating 100,000, whose profits, averaged at 150 £. each annually, amount to - - - - -	15,000,000	
Labour and Profits of Innkeepers and Publicans throughout Great Britain and Ireland—taken on the supposed number of 75,000 Families averaging 100 £. each - - - - -	7,500,000	
Proprietors of Barges and other Small Craft, employed in Rivers and Canals in the conveyance of Coals, Merchandize, and various Articles, for their profits and Interest on their capital, which may be estimated, after deducting Wear and Tear, Men's Wages and other Charges, at - - - - -	1,500,000	
Aquatic Labourers in Rivers and Canals, estimating 100,000 persons whose average Wages at 55 £. per annum would amount to - - - - -	5,500,000	
Proprietors of Coaches and Waggon, in as far as they are employed in the Transit of Goods, including the labour of persons employed in collecting Tolls on the Roads, and also the labour of persons employed in repairing Roads, in as far as relates to the conveyance of Goods, Merchandize, &c. the labour and profits in all which may be estimated at - - - - - (TT)	2,000,000	
		31,500,000

FOREIGN COMMERCE AND SHIPPING.

Profits on the Capital employed by Merchants, arising from the Exportation of Merchandize annually from Great Britain and Ireland on 91,795,822 £., being an average of the 2 years ended January 5, 1810 and 1811 and from Importation on 75,602,856 £. being an average of the same 2 years, making together 167,398,678 £. estimated at 10 per Cent. including interest of Money advanced, and exclusive of the collateral profits arising from Foreign Commerce derived by Bankers, Brokers, and others to be hereinafter detailed - - - - -	16,739,867	
Underwriters on the risk of Vessels and Cargoes outwards and Homewards, averaged at 4 per cent. on the Value of the Shipping and the amount of Imports and Exports amounting to 10,338,815 £.—10 per cent. on this sum, which may be fairly estimated as the Underwriters' gains, is - - - - -	1,033,881	
Ship Owners for Freight of 2,265,934 Tons of Shipping Outwards, and 2,287,652 Tons Homewards between Great Britain and Ireland and all parts of the World, for an average of the years 1810 and 1811, estimated at 5 £. per Ton Outwards and 6 £. per Ton Homewards, would amount to 25,055,582 £.; their clear Profit on this Sum cannot be less than - - - - -	4,000,000	
Brokers, Factors, Agents, and others deriving from these Exports and Imports a profit, probably - - - - -	1,000,000	
Clerks and Labourers, namely, about 30,000 Clerks and 40,000 Labourers, employed in shipping and landing Merchandize, whose Labour may be fairly averaged at 80 £. per annum each - - - - -	5,600,000	
Nautical Labourers or Sailors, about 200,000 including their Provisions and Liquors: the Seamen's Wages averaged at 40 £. per annum, and the Provisions and Liquors at 30 £. for each Sailor - - - - -	14,000,000	
Miscellaneous Charges centering with Dock Companies and others employed about Docks, Harbours, and Piers, and Labourers connected therewith - - - - -	1,000,000	
Ship Chandlers, Block-makers, Sail-makers, Artificers, and others employed in equipping and fitting out Ships:—their Labour may be estimated at - - - - -	3,000,000	
		46,373,748

COASTING TRADE.

Ships and Vessels employed in the Coast Trade of Great Britain and Ireland, including the Coal Trade and also including their repeated Voyages:—The Proprietors clear profit, after deducting for wear and tear of the Vessels, Insurance and all other Charges, may be estimated at - - - - -	1,000,000	
Aquatic Labourers employed on board of Vessels in the Coasting Trade, about 20,000, averaged for Wages and Provisions at 50 £. each per annum - - - - -	1,000,000	—2,000,000
		Continued - - - £419,921,372

EXPLANATORY NOTES Continued.

the Marble excepted, cost little or nothing, the value consisting nearly in the work of the Artist:—Supposing 5000 Artists, Sculptors, and Engravers and their Assistants in Great Britain and Ireland, their averaged annual gains at 100 £. each per annum would amount to 500,000 £. the sum mentioned.

(TT) Goods are of various values in different parts of the Kingdom, according to the distance they are brought for Sale:—Thus, Coals are of greater value in the Metropolis than they are in Newcastle, on account of the Expence attending their conveyance from the latter to the former place; the Value of the Commodity is enhanced in proportion to the expence of Carriage and other Charges.

AN ATTEMPT TO ESTIMATE THE NEW PROPERTY CREATED ANNUALLY IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND;

Arising from the Use of Capital combined with Human Labour and Machinery, in raising various sorts of Grain and Animal Food, and in converting various Raw Materials into Manufactures and Fabrics, as derived from *Agriculture, Mines and Minerals, Manufactures, Inland Trade, Foreign Commerce and Shipping, Coasting Trade, Fisheries, and Foreign Income.* (1812.)

FISHERIES.		£.	£.
		Continued - - - - -	419,921,372
WHALE and SEAL FISHERIES , in the Greenland and South Seas.—The expence of Outfit, Seamen's Wages, Provisions, wear and tear of Ships, Insurance, &c. valued at about 10 per Cent, namely 269,551 <i>l.</i> taken from 869,551 <i>l.</i> the real value of the Imports of Oil and Whale Fins as per Financial Accounts for 1812, leaves - - - - -		600,000	
BRITISH and IRISH FISHERIES , round the Coasts of Great Britain and Ireland, comprising Herrings, Pilchards, Sprats, Mackarel, Cod, Haddock, Ling, Turbot, Brills, Whittings, Soles, Plaice, Halbert, Skait, Lobsters, Crabs, Oysters, Prawns, Shrimps, and other Sea and Shell Fish for Home Consumption and Exportation - - - - -		1,000,000	
RIVER FISHERIES in Great Britain and Ireland, consisting of Salmon, Salmon Trout, Eels, Pike, Carp, Perch, and a variety of other Fish, after deducting the expence of Fishing Apparatus, &c. exclusive of the Fisheries of Newfoundland, which, being a Colonial Fishery, are mentioned in another place - - -		500,000	2,100,000
BANKS.			
BANKERS' Profits , including the Chartered Banks of England, Scotland, and Ireland, arising from dealing in Money and Government Securities for the accommodation of Persons engaged in <i>Agricultural pursuits, Manufactures, Foreign Commerce and Shipping, Inland Trade, Coasting Trade, Fisheries, and Foreign Income</i> , inasmuch as all Bankers participate in the Profits derived from the above-mentioned seven sources, which have been considered in estimating the Property created under these different heads about - - - - -			3,500,000
FOREIGN INCOME.			
REMITTANCES .—Comprising Remittances of Fortunes from the East Indies and other Foreign Parts, and the Produce of Estates in the West Indies for the support of Proprietors and other Persons residing in Great Britain and Ireland, about - - - - -			5,000,000
Grand Total - - - - -			£. 430,521,372

RECAPITULATION.

	£.
AGRICULTURE	216,817,624
MINES AND MINERALS	9,000,000
MANUFACTURES	114,230,000
INLAND TRADE	31,500,000
FOREIGN COMMERCE and SHIPPING	46,373,748
COASTING TRADE	2,000,000
FISHERIES (exclusive of the Colonial Fisheries of Newfoundland)	2,100,000
BANKS, viz. Chartered Banks and private Banking Establishments	3,500,000
FOREIGN INCOME	5,000,000
Total	£. 430,521,372

GENERAL VIEW OF THE AMOUNT OF NEW PROPERTY CREATED ANNUALLY IN THE BRITISH EMPIRE ;

Shewing the Value of Productions raised with respect to the Employment of Capital, Machinery, Skill, and Labour in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and all its Colonies and Dependencies, in Europe, America, Africa, and Asia, including the Territorial Possessions under the Management of the East India Company. (1812.)

EUROPE.

GREAT BRITAIN and IRELAND, (See page 96.)

£.
430,521,372

DEPENDENCIES IN EUROPE:—(See Table, No. 7.)

	£	
Isle of Man	450,000	
Scilly Islands	10,000	
Guernsey	150,000	
Jersey	200,000	
Alderney	10,000	
Sark	3,000	
Gibraltar	50,000	
Malta, including Gozo	940,000	
Heligoland	5,000	— 1,818,000
		— 432,339,372

AMERICA.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA:—(See Table, No. 8.)

	£
Canada	7,302,827
New Brunswick	1,913,987
Nova Scotia	2,607,330
Cape Breton	69,302
St. John's, or Prince Edward's Island	216,434
Newfoundland	1,065,594
Hudson's Bay	40,000
	£ 13,215,474

BRITISH WEST INDIA COLONIES:—(See Table, No. 9.)

	£
Jamaica	11,169,661
Barbadoes	1,270,863
Antigua	898,220
St. Vincent	812,081
St. Christopher's	753,528
Nevis	375,182
Montserrat	211,160
Virgin Islands	201,122
Grenada	935,782
Dominica	561,858
Trinidad	735,017
Bahamas	269,806
Bermudas	175,560
Honduras	146,700
	£18,516,540

CONQUERED WEST INDIA COLONIES:—(See Table, No. 9.)

Tobago	516,532	
St. Lucia	595,610	
St. Martin's	46,615	
Martinique	1,785,923	
Guadaloupe	1,803,384	
Mariegalante	113,597	
Surinam	1,520,957	
Berbice	629,461	
Demarara and Essequibo	2,238,529	
Curaçoa	19,457	
St. Eustatia	26,112	
St. Croix	729,473	
St. Thomas	21,976	
St. John's	148,300	— 28,712,466
		— 41,927,940

Continued

£ 474,267,312

GENERAL VIEW OF THE AMOUNT OF NEW PROPERTY CREATED ANNUALLY IN THE BRITISH EMPIRE;

Shewing the Value of Productions raised with respect to the Employment of Capital, Machinery, Skill, and Labour in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and all its Colonies and Dependencies in Europe, America, Africa, and Asia, including the Territorial Possessions under the Management of the East India Company:— (1812)

AFRICA.			
SETTLEMENTS IN AFRICA:—(See Table, No. 10.)			Continued
		£	£
Senegal and its Dependencies		55,600	474,267,312
Goree		36,500	
Sierra Leone		123,400	
Cape of Good Hope		584,800	
			800,300
ASIA.			
COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES IN ASIA:—			
		£	
New South Wales, and its Dependencies.—(See Table, No. 11.)		169,500	
Ceylon (See Table, No. 12.)		2,306,000	
Isle of Bourbon (See . . . Idem)		801,730	
Mauritius, or Isle of France. (See . . . Idem)		905,000	
Java, and its Dependencies (See . . . Idem)		2,012,000	
		£ 6,194,230	
TERRITORIAL POSSESSIONS UNDER THE MANAGEMENT OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY (See page 61)		211,966,494	218,160,724
		Grand Total.	£ 693,228,336

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

	£	
EUROPE.—Great Britain and Ireland,	430,521,372	
Dependencies	1,818,000	£ 432,339,372
AMERICA.—British Possessions in North America	13,215,474	
British West India Colonies	18,516,540	
Conquered Idem Idem	10,195,926	41,927,940
AFRICA.—British Settlements	179,000	
Conquered Idem	621,300	800,300
ASIA.—British Colonies and Dependencies	2,475,500	
Conquered . Idem . . Idem	3,718,730	
	£ 6,194,230	
Territorial Possessions under the Management of the East India Company	211,966,494	218,160,724
Total		£ 693,228,336

AGGREGATE AMOUNT.

	£
In Europe	432,339,372
America	41,927,940
Africa	800,300
Asia	218,160,724
	£ 693,228,336

REAL VALUE OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND ALL PARTS of the WORLD;

From 1805 to 1811, both years inclusive,—Distinguishing, as to the Exports, *British Produce* and Manufactures, and *Foreign and Colonial Merchandize* :—From an Official Account, ordered by the House of Commons to be printed 16th June, 1812.

BRITISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES:—

EXPORTS FROM GREAT BRITAIN TO		1805.	1806.	1807.	1808.	1809.	1810.	1811.
EUROPE:—	North of Europe (including France)	10,316,384	7,572,409	5,085,962	2,162,434	5,704,537	7,702,390	1,498,688
	Spain	47,010	32,470	28,886	859,366	2,377,695	1,407,609	1,230,321
	Portugal	1,849,604	1,701,772	971,052	426,122	804,022	1,308,216	4,650,703
	Gibraltar, Malta, Sicily, the Levant, &c.	1,412,678	2,056,984	2,916,337	5,568,111	6,963,195	5,209,591	5,454,968
	Ireland, and the Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man	4,999,795	4,509,446	5,066,998	5,874,080	5,448,309	4,214,513	5,023,732
AMERICA:—	British North America	1,417,169	3,133,147	2,275,521	6,361,085	6,971,484	6,463,614	4,598,727
	United States of America	11,011,409	12,389,488	11,846,513	5,241,739	7,258,500	10,920,752	1,841,253
	West Indies	6,354,249	7,744,821	8,163,902	10,230,786	11,042,735	9,176,552	7,340,953
ASIA		2,904,584	2,937,895	3,359,226	3,524,823	2,867,832	2,977,366	2,941,194
AFRICA		756,060	1,163,744	765,468	633,125	804,452	595,031	336,742
Totals		£41,068,942	43,242,176	40,479,865	40,881,671	50,242,761	49,975,634	34,917,281

FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDIZE:—

EXPORTS FROM GREAT BRITAIN TO		1805.	1806.	1807.	1808.	1809.	1810.	1811.
EUROPE:—	North of Europe (including France)	6,331,090	5,856,275	5,733,767	3,269,098	8,870,446	6,155,556	1,984,403
	Spain	139,650	29,835	76,482	257,687	657,350	336,312	265,544
	Portugal	178,046	75,777	199,169	174,015	320,076	920,617	1,514,155
	Gibraltar, Malta, Sicily, the Levant, &c.	161,478	221,721	408,859	1,266,290	1,493,016	1,184,276	1,938,422
	Ireland, and the Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man	1,400,568	1,304,204	1,965,274	2,097,614	2,117,290	1,550,951	2,186,967
AMERICA:—	British North America	208,967	359,404	306,351	508,063	499,856	840,680	401,052
	United States of America	435,530	476,063	251,429	61,127	202,268	296,933	33,664
	West Indies	576,801	650,189	608,022	1,073,122	1,319,621	1,202,861	503,022
ASIA		207,164	321,939	196,166	193,990	122,608	139,709	122,777
AFRICA		400,895	491,298	257,277	187,069	172,420	98,880	72,333
Totals		£10,040,189	9,786,705	10,002,796	9,088,075	15,774,951	12,726,775	9,022,339

EXPORTS FROM GREAT BRITAIN

TO:—

Years.	EUROPE.					AMERICA.			ASIA.	AFRICA.	Total Exports.
	North of Europe (including France).	Spain.	Portugal.	Gibraltar, Malta, Sicily, the Levant, &c.	Ireland, and the Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man.	British North America.	United States of America.	West Indies.			
1805	£16,647,474	£186,660	£2,027,650	£1,574,156	£6,400,363	£1,626,136	£11,446,939	£6,931,050	£3,111,748	£1,156,955	£51,109,131
1806	13,428,684	62,305	1,777,549	2,278,705	5,813,650	3,492,551	12,865,551	8,395,010	3,259,834	1,655,042	53,028,881
1807	10,819,729	105,368	1,170,221	3,325,196	7,032,272	2,581,872	12,097,942	8,771,924	3,555,392	1,022,745	50,482,661
1808	5,431,532	1,117,033	600,137	6,834,401	7,971,694	6,869,148	5,302,866	11,303,908	3,718,813	820,194	49,969,746
1809	14,574,983	3,035,045	1,124,098	8,456,211	7,565,599	7,471,340	7,460,768	12,362,356	2,990,440	976,872	66,017,712
1810	13,857,946	1,743,921	2,228,833	6,393,867	5,765,464	7,304,294	11,217,685	10,379,413	3,117,075	693,911	62,702,409
1811	3,483,091	1,495,865	6,164,858	7,393,390	7,210,699	4,999,779	1,874,917	7,843,975	3,063,971	409,075	43,939,620

IMPORTS INTO GREAT BRITAIN

FROM:—

Years.	Continent of Europe.	Ireland and the Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man.	Asia.	Africa.	America.	West-Indies.	Whale Fisheries.	Prize Goods.	Total Imports.
1805	£21,744,762	£6,278,857	£9,187,539	£193,034	£4,641,488	£9,505,673	£663,535	£1,367,258	£53,582,146
1806	17,855,524	6,645,337	7,147,447	226,396	5,153,098	12,126,289	608,206	859,410	50,621,707
1807	17,442,755	6,990,907	8,037,906	242,747	7,515,643	11,715,963	521,240	1,033,829	53,500,990
1808	8,905,099	8,342,453	7,549,329	374,306	4,933,679	13,007,670	544,567	2,061,595	45,718,698
1809	19,821,601	7,471,018	7,441,245	383,926	9,625,489	13,392,851	500,515	1,214,707	59,851,352
1810	28,120,148	7,436,506	9,306,510	535,577	12,316,798	15,158,672	566,967	1,096,883	74,538,061

GENERAL VIEW OF THE TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND;

Shewing the Real Value of the *Exports* and *Imports*, and the *Shipping*, namely, the Number of Vessels, Tons, and Men, Entered Inwards and Cleared Outwards (including their repeated Voyages) at the several Ports of Great Britain and Ireland, from and to all Parts of the World, also the Number of Vessels built and belonging to the British Empire, for the Years 1810, 1811, and 1812:—From authentic Accounts presented to Parliament.

EXPORTS TO ALL PARTS OF THE WORLD FROM:—

Years.	Great Britain.			Ireland.			Total Exports from Great Britain and Ireland.
	British Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Merchandise.	Total Exports from Great Britain.	Irish Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Merchandise.	Total Exports from Ireland.	
Ended 5th January.	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1811	49,975,634	15,324,797	65,300,431	10,847,520	1,244,105	12,091,625	77,392,056
1812	34,917,281	11,589,112	46,506,393	11,567,219	508,400	12,075,619	58,582,012
1813	43,657,864	16,797,450	60,455,314	12,747,647	522,641	13,270,288	73,725,602

IMPORTS FROM ALL PARTS OF THE WORLD INTO:—

Years.	Great Britain.	Ireland.	Total Imports into Great Britain and Ireland.
Ended 5th January.	£	£	£
1811	69,931,429	10,301,338	80,232,767
1812	48,665,186	11,348,055	60,013,241
1813	46,583,696	13,841,180	60,424,876

SHIPPING.

Number of *Vessels*, *Tons*, and *Men*, Entered Inwards and Cleared Outwards, in the Years 1810, 1811, and 1812 (including their repeated Voyages) viz.

Year ended 5th January, 1811.

ENTERED INWARDS.										CLEARED OUTWARDS.									
Kind of Built	England.			Scotland.			Ireland.			Kind of Built	England.			Scotland.			Ireland.		
	Vessels	Tons.	Men.	Vessels	Tons.	Men.	Vessels	Tons.	Men.		Vessels	Tons.	Men.	Vessels	Tons.	Men.	Vessels	Tons.	Men.
British	10,467	1,346,990	84,776	3,090	262,098	18,124	7,514	673,540	38,536	British	10,159	1,369,696	89,435	2,933	254,578	18,289	6,931	627,012	35,595
Irish	6,199	1,070,080	54,268	677	106,163	5,826	1,982	130,991	8,983	Irish	6,210	1,073,535	57,187	431	64,992	3,683	1,841	125,389	8,650
Foreign	6,199	1,070,080	54,268	677	106,163	5,826	660	119,188	6,643	Foreign	6,210	1,073,535	57,187	431	64,992	3,683	639	117,414	6,312
Totals.	16,666	2,417,070	139,044	3,767	368,261	23,950	10,156	923,719	54,162	Totals.	16,369	2,443,231	146,622	3,364	319,570	21,972	9,411	869,815	50,557

Year ended 5th January, 1812.

ENTERED INWARDS.										CLEARED OUTWARDS.									
Kind of Built	England.			Scotland.			Ireland.			Kind of Built	England.			Scotland.			Ireland.		
	Vessels	Tons.	Men.	Vessels	Tons.	Men.	Vessels	Tons.	Men.		Vessels	Tons.	Men.	Vessels	Tons.	Men.	Vessels	Tons.	Men.
British	10,179	1,294,651	77,354	2,729	228,041	17,386	7,404	686,255	39,504	British	10,111	1,264,509	79,732	2,663	242,844	17,007	6,865	642,767	36,051
Irish	2,921	637,416	31,414	295	49,764	2,743	1,956	133,748	9,125	Irish	3,048	647,159	34,460	302	49,073	2,802	1,853	129,031	8,651
Foreign	2,921	637,416	31,414	295	49,764	2,743	644	129,994	6,673	Foreign	3,048	647,159	34,460	302	49,073	2,802	621	126,588	6,265
Totals.	13,100	1,932,067	108,768	3,024	277,805	20,129	10,004	949,997	55,302	Totals.	13,159	1,911,668	114,192	2,965	291,917	19,809	9,339	898,386	50,967

Year ended 5th January, 1813.

ENTERED INWARDS.										CLEARED OUTWARDS.									
Kind of Built	England.			Scotland.			Ireland.			Kind of Built	England.			Scotland.			Ireland.		
	Vessels	Tons.	Men.	Vessels	Tons.	Men.	Vessels	Tons.	Men.		Vessels	Tons.	Men.	Vessels	Tons.	Men.	Vessels	Tons.	Men.
British	10,756	1,310,156	78,269	3,113	269,559	18,102	9,022	830,473	47,809	British	11,177	1,386,550	85,473	3,151	278,968	19,531	8,465	792,829	45,437
Irish	2,246	469,696	22,829	290	48,747	2,690	2,229	152,355	10,398	Irish	2,336	490,206	24,949	311	50,696	2,892	2,103	151,141	10,042
Foreign	2,246	469,696	22,829	290	48,747	2,690	403	79,307	4,255	Foreign	2,336	490,206	24,949	311	50,696	2,892	421	85,505	4,368
Totals.	12,002	1,779,852	101,098	3,403	318,306	20,792	11,656	1,062,135	62,462	Totals.	13,513	1,876,756	110,422	3,462	329,664	22,423	10,989	1,029,475	59,847

Number of *Vessels*, *Tons*, and *Men*, including *Boys*, employed in navigating Vessels belonging to the British Empire, on the 30th September, in the years 1810, 1811, and 1812.

	1810.			1811.			1812.		
Great Britain and Ireland:—	Vessels	Tons.	Men.	Vessels	Tons.	Men.	Vessels	Tons.	Men.
England . . .	16,048	1,918,089	126,008	16,164	1,942,406	123,757	16,295	1,951,234	124,896
Scotland . . .	2,552	209,736	15,064	2,630	220,688	15,490	2,708	231,273	16,300
Ireland . . .	1,126	58,650	5,416	1,133	59,155	5,484	1,111	57,104	5,320
Colonies and Dependencies:—	19,726	2,186,475	146,488	19,927	2,222,249	144,731	20,114	2,239,611	146,516
British Plantations	3,450	215,383	14,157	3,628	227,452	14,085	3,470	216,068	14,971
Guernsey . . .	104	9,947	883	94	9,485	855	76	8,312	751
Jersey . . .	57	5,454	550	59	6,003	547	54	5,369	519
Isle of Man . .	366	8,785	2,117	398	9,585	2,329	393	9,439	2,273
Totals.	23,703	2,426,044	164,195	24,106	2,474,774	162,547	24,107	2,478,799	165,030

Number of *Vessels* and their *Tonnage*, which have been *Built and Registered* at the several Ports of the British Empire, in the years 1810, 1811, and 1812.

	1810.		1811.		1812.	
Great Britain and British Colonies.	Vessels	Tons.	Vessels	Tons.	Vessels	Tons.
Ireland . . .	685	84,891	870	115,630	760	94,198
Totals.	21	1,331	41	1,655	50	1,952
Totals.	706	86,222	911	117,285	810	96,150

* The Imports from Europe, Africa, and America, for the year ended the 5th January 1813, amounted in real Value to £39,091,232. The amount of Imports for the same period from the East Indies and China could not be stated when the Account was made out, taking it, however, at an average of the two preceding years, the amount will be £7,492,464. Total £46,583,696.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND;

Shewing the Real Value of the EXPORTS and IMPORTS, and the SHIPPING, namely, the Number of Vessels, Tons, and Men, Entered Inwards and Cleared Outwards (including their repeated Voyages) at the several Ports of Great Britain and Ireland, from and to all Parts of the World, also the number of Vessels built and belonging to the British Empire, for the Years 1810, 1811, and 1812:—From Authentic Accounts presented to Parliament.

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

EXPORTS TO ALL PARTS OF THE WORLD:—

	Year ended 5th January, 1811.	Year ended 5th January, 1812.	Year ended 5th January, 1813.
From Great Britain - - -	£65,300,431	£46,506,393	£60,455,314
Ireland - - - - -	12,091,625	12,075,619	13,270,288
Totals	£77,392,056	£58,582,012	£73,725,602

IMPORTS FROM ALL PARTS OF THE WORLD:—

	Year ended 5th January, 1811.	Year ended 5th January, 1812.	Year ended 5th January, 1813.
Into Great Britain - - -	£69,931,429	£48,665,186	£46,583,696
Ireland - - - - -	10,301,338	11,348,055	13,841,180
Totals -	£80,232,767	£60,013,241	£60,424,876

SHIPPING:—

ENTERED INWARDS.†

	Year ended 5th January, 1811.			Year ended 5th January, 1812.			Year ended 5th January, 1813.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
Great Britain	20,433	2,785,331	162,994	16,124	2,209,872	128,897	16,405	2,098,158	121,890
Ireland	10,156	923,719	54,162	10,004	949,997	55,302	11,656	1,062,135	62,462
Totals.	30,589	3,709,050	217,156	26,128	3,159,869	184,199	28,061	3,160,293	184,352

CLEARED OUTWARDS.†

	Year ended 5th January, 1811.			Year ended 5th January, 1812.			Year ended 5th January, 1813.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
Great Britain	19,733	2,762,801	168,594	16,124	2,203,585	131,001	16,975	2,206,420	132,845
Ireland	9,411	869,815	50,557	9,339	898,386	50,967	10,989	1,029,475	59,847
Totals	29,144	3,632,616	219,151	25,463	3,101,971	181,968	27,964	3,235,895	192,692

BELONGING TO THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

	1810.			1811.			1812.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
Great Britain - - -	18,600	2,127,825	141,072	18,794	2,163,094	139,247	19,003	2,182,507	141,196
Ireland - - - - -	1,126	58,650	5,416	1,133	59,155	5,484	1,111	57,104	5,320
British Colonies and Dependencies	3,977	239,569	17,707	4,179	252,525	17,816	3,993	239,188	18,514
Totals.	23,703	2,426,044	164,195	24,106	2,474,774	162,547	24,107	2,478,799	165,030

BUILT AND REGISTERED IN THE BRITISH EMPIRE:—

	Great Britain and British Colonies		Ireland.		Totals.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
1810.	685	84,891	21	1,331	706	86,222
1811.	870	115,630	41	1,655	913	105,755
1812.	760	94,198	50	1,952	810	96,150

† Including their repeated voyages.

CHAPTER IV.

AN ATTEMPT TO SHEW HOW THE NEW PROPERTY IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, ARISING FROM AGRICULTURE, MINES AND MINERALS, MANUFACTURES, INLAND TRADE, FOREIGN COMMERCE AND SHIPPING, COASTING TRADE, FISHERIES, AND FOREIGN INCOME IS DISTRIBUTED AMONG THE DIFFERENT CLASSES OF THE COMMUNITY.

The Table, No. 4, annexed to this Chapter, details the manner in which the new Property acquired in the Year 1812—13 is divided among the different Classes of the Community.—Considered as a Statistical Map of Society.—All that is attainable are approximating facts.—Their utility explained.—The increasing and diminishing Classes discovered through this medium.—An object of great importance in the affairs of Government.—The use and disuse in the State of various productive and unproductive labourers.—All classes derive a maintenance from the land and labour of the people.—An increase of productive labourers favourable to the wealth of the country.—The population of Great Britain and Ireland divided into seven classes, exclusive of the Army and Navy, numbering 3,501,781 heads of families, or 17,096,803 souls.—The Census of 1811 an improvement upon that of 1801.—Suggestions for a more particular Census, which may prove highly beneficial to the Nation.—The productive and unproductive labourers distinguished.—Poverty useful in a State.—Difference between Poverty and Indigence explained.—In what manner the interference of the Legislature may prove useful in augmenting the number of profitable labourers, and diminishing the unprofitable and indolent.—Importance of being prepared on the return of Peace by adequate measures for the employment of the Army and Navy, with a view to render their labour beneficial to the Country.—Resources in British North America and the West Indies for a redundant population.—Improvements in the system of Police recommended.—The morals of the people have retrograded within the last twenty years,—and are still changing.—A new æra.—Great Britain compared with other nations.—The general use of cheap and accessible food urged as the means of increasing the number of productive labourers.—Parsimony a great help to industry.—Contrasted with prodigality.—The degree of prosperity in a country ascertained by capital rather than by revenue.—Conclusion of the Chapter:—Observations on the morals and habits of the people, constituting the seven different classes of society in the United Kingdom.

HAVING in the three preceding Chapters taken a general view of the population,—the estimated capital or wealth of the British Empire,—and the new property acquired annually by the land and labour; it becomes an interesting object to discover, as far as discovery is practicable, by approximating details, in what manner and in what proportions this property is divided among the various classes of society in Great Britain and Ireland.

With a view to this object the Table, No. 4, annexed to this Chapter, has been constructed. It may be considered as a map of civil society, exhibiting in one view the proportions of created wealth which is allotted annually to every class of the community, from the Sovereign in regular gradation down to the pauper. Although all that is possible to attain after much labour and research is *approximating facts*; yet if these shall be found sufficient to assist the mind in forming conclusions, useful in moral and political views of a subject so extremely interesting, an object will be accomplished of great importance as it relates to the public weal. From this diagram more correct ideas may at once be formed of the state of civil society than can be attained by the labour of perusing many volumes.

It will, through this medium, be discovered, what classes of the community by their labour in different pursuits tend to increase the national capital, and what other classes diminish it, together with the degree of increase and diminution as applicable to each order or rank in society. This species of knowledge, drawn from approximating facts, is of great importance in the general affairs of government, more especially when they are presented to the minds of statesmen and politicians, in such a form as to bring the whole scheme of the national economy at once under the eye; exhibiting in one collected view the proportions of the land and labour of the country assigned to each class of the community for their immediate support, and for the exigencies of the state.

By the aid of political arithmetic, or, in other words, by the practice of reasoning by figures on matters relating to government in all the branches of its internal economy, much useful information is obtained, calculated to assist the mind with respect to the encouragements which may be afforded in promoting the prosperity of the country, and the blemishes in the existing system which call for a remedy, so as to effect those objects which shall tend in the greatest possible degree to improve the condition of the people, by a more general diffusion of productive industry and moral habits.

As the wealth of all nations arises from land and labour, great advantages may be derived from an accurate knowledge of the produce of this labour, and the manner in which it is distributed among the community, by suggesting measures of state policy, which shall give a right direction to this labour, and to the improvement of the morals of the people, than which nothing can tend more to the augmentation of the power and resources of the state, and to individual comfort and happiness.

The subject now to be discussed is placed in a point of view not less novel than interesting. It embraces the whole range of statistical economy connected with the existing population of the United Kingdom, divided into different classes.

It shews the distinction between the productive and unproductive labourers, ac-

according to their different pursuits in society. It discloses, by means of approximating facts, the share allotted to each class of the community of the disposable property or wealth annually created or obtained by land and labour, after reserving the capital employed in giving motion to this labour. It distinguishes the useful from the noxious members of the body politic, while it shews the relative degree of usefulness or noxious tendency, which applies to all the different ranks and degrees in society.

It exhibits, in the course of the discussion, a general view of those specific classes of society by whose labour alone all the other classes are supported, and, in many instances, greatly enriched by another species of labour, which, although frequently useful, produces nothing in the result by which the wealth of the nation is increased. It shews also the medium by which its wealth or the produce of the labour is annually diminished.

Contemplating, therefore, the gradations of society detailed in the Table, No. 4, pages 124, 125, 126, and 127, it becomes a matter of interesting enquiry, *by what proportion* of the community at large, those different classes are maintained. Assuming (what no political economist of the present day will deny) that it is by the annual labour of the people employed in agriculture, mines, manufactures, shipping, commerce, fisheries, and inland trade, assisted by capital, machinery, and skill, that the means of subsistence are obtained; it can be demonstrated that all other classes of the community, although many of them partake largely in the new property annually produced, have no share whatever in its production, and, whatever they may do to diminish, do nothing to increase the national wealth. Many of them indeed labour with great zeal and ability in the affairs of the state and in its judicial and revenue departments, while others are laboriously occupied in offensive and defensive war. No less necessary and useful are those who follow the learned professions. But like menial servants their labour adds to the value of nothing, since not like the agriculturist, the manufacturer, and the trader, they work upon no material that possesses a reproductive quality, and yet their consumption of the labour of others generally exceeds that allotted to many of the labourers themselves; and in this view of the question, the former tend to diminish the wealth of the nation annually created, while the latter increase it. Since in all cases where the labour of man does not fix or realize itself in any vendible commodity, which remains as the result of this labour, and for which an equal quantity of labour could afterwards be procured, it can in no case improve the national property, or add to the riches of the community, but on the contrary diminishes it.

Most of these diminishing classes, however, and particularly those whose great talents and cultivated minds enable them to fill important stations, are indispensibly necessary in civil society, as without their assistance the social compact could not exist. The Sovereign, as the father of his people, confers great benefits on the whole

community by good government and good example, while the dignity of the crown and the state requires that himself and family should exhibit that splendour which their illustrious rank in society renders necessary. The nobility have a peculiar claim to the gratitude of the community, in all cases, where they execute gratuitously the laborious functions and duties assigned them as legislators and magistrates with zeal and attention to the interest and welfare of the community; since although their own individual labour is not productive, the capitals they possess in land entitle them to a certain proportion of its annual produce. The same observation is applicable to all the country gentlemen and landholders, who, as legislators and magistrates, execute many important duties necessary to the existence of civil society, and highly beneficial to the state.

The clergy and the teachers of youth, in like manner, are beneficial labourers in all instances where they conscientiously and zealously perform the duties assigned them:—the former in the faithful exercise of their sacred functions, and the latter by useful instruction according to the rank of the pupils, and by instilling good principles to fit the rising generation for the different departments they are destined to fill in society, giving an impetus to the productive labour of others, although their individual labour adds nothing to the riches of the state.

In the departments of the law and physic considerable benefits are derived by the community. The former is rendered necessary for the administration of justice, and the protection and security of property; while the latter, by the aid of medical skill, promotes the health of the people by the removal in many instances of diseases, by which the labour of those classes, whose pursuits are productive of wealth to the country, are again rendered active and available. No less necessary are those classes who labour in the civil, military, and naval departments of the state; since without such aid and protection the nation could not be defended, nor its government conducted so as to afford peace and security to the body politic.

The sums which are drawn from the industry of those classes, whose labour is applied to the support of the whole community, are indeed immense; but although blemishes exist in the general state of society, more or less in all governments, arising from the imperfection of human nature, yet as nothing is conceded by the one class to the other without a corresponding benefit, and as the remuneration both to the productive and unproductive labourers is pretty nearly balanced, except perhaps with respect to those classes of the community who support themselves from the labour of others by theatrical, musical, and other exhibitions, of the highest and lowest order, for the amusement of the people, since here no service can be said to be performed by which the public can derive any solid benefit, inasmuch as all their labour and exertions perish the moment they are produced,—consuming the labour of others without producing any new property to the nation,—yet these classes are necessary in producing in some instances intellectual enjoyment, and in others amusement to the people. All who labour in any useful pursuit contribute to the general comfort and happiness of every well governed community.

It is only those who pass their lives in vice and idleness, or who dissipate the surplus labour acquired by inheritance or otherwise in gaming and debauchery, and the idle class of paupers, prostitutes, rogues, vagabonds, vagrants, and persons engaged in criminal pursuits, who are real nuisances in society,—who live upon the land and the labour of the people, without filling any useful station in the body politic, or making the smallest return or compensation to society for what they consume.

Thus it is obvious, that both productive and unproductive labourers, and also a numerous class who do not labour at all, receive a maintenance from the produce of the land and from the labour of the people. As however there is a limit to every thing, in proportion to the number of unproductive labourers, who are maintained, will the aggregate of the produce of the land and labour of the country be saved or consumed. If consumed in a great ratio a nation must decline; but, in all cases, where from the mass of the population of a country the number of productive labourers can be increased, or, in other words, where the proportion of those inferior orders who labour for the state or in other professions, whose industry adds nothing to the property of the country, can be turned into channels where equal exertions, besides producing the same or greater emolument, would leave behind as the result of this labour a vendible article, increased in value to a greater amount than the value of the labour bestowed upon it,—in this proportion, would the wealth and resources of the country be augmented.

The population of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, including the army and navy, admits of the following division into classes, viz.

HIGHEST ORDERS.		Heads of Families.	Total persons, comprising their Families.
1st. The Royal Family, the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, the Great Officers of State, and all above the degree of a Baronet, with their families	}	576	2,880
SECOND CLASS.			
2d. Baronets, Knights, Country Gentlemen, and others having large incomes, with their families	}	46,861	234,305
THIRD CLASS.			
3d. Dignified Clergy, Persons holding considerable employments in the State, elevated situations in the Law, eminent Prac- titioners in Physic, considerable Merchants, Manufacturers upon a large scale, and Bankers of the first order, with their families	}	12,200	61,000
Carried forward		59,637	298,185

OF THE NEW PROPERTY.

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		Heads of Families.	Total persons, comprising their families.
FOURTH CLASS.	Brought forward	59,637	298,185
4th. Persons holding inferior situations in Church and State, respectable Clergymen of different persuasions, Practitioners in Law and Physic, Teachers of Youth of the superior order, respectable Freeholders, Ship Owners, Merchants and Manufacturers of the second class, Warehousemen and respectable Shopkeepers, Artists, respectable Builders, Mechanics, and Persons living on moderate incomes, with their families - -	}	233,650	1,168,250
FIFTH CLASS.			
5th. Lesser Freeholders, Shopkeepers of the second order, Innkeepers, Publicans, and Persons engaged in miscellaneous occupations or living on moderate incomes, with their families - - - - -	}	564,799	2,798,475
SIXTH CLASS.			
6th. Working Mechanics, Artisans, Handicrafts, Agricultural Labourers, and others who subsist by labour in various employments, with their families - - - - -	}	2,126,095	8,792,800
Menial Servants - - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	1,279,923
SEVENTH, OR LOWEST CLASS.			
7th. Paupers and their families, Vagrants, Gipsies, Rogues, Vagabonds, and idle and disorderly persons, supported by criminal delinquency - - - - -	}	387,100	1,828,170
		<u>3,371,281</u>	<u>16,165,803</u>
THE ARMY AND NAVY.			
Officers of the Army, Navy, and Marines, including all Officers on half-pay and superannuated, with their families - - -	}	10,500	69,000
Non-commissioned Officers in the Army, Navy, and Marines, Soldiers, Seamen, and Marines, including Pensioners of the Army, Navy, &c. and their families - - - - -	}	120,000	362,000
Total - -		<u><u>3,501,781</u></u>	<u><u>17,096,803</u></u>

This abstract view of the gradation of the different classes of the community will convey to the mind a more accurate conception of the state of society, in the United Kingdom, than could be obtained by lengthened and laborious details. All however that can be expected in the investigation of a subject so complicated, is an approximation to facts, which can never be ascertained with perfect accuracy until a Census shall be made, which shall require under legislative authority the specific number of every different class of the community, specifying their different pursuits and occupations and their means of subsistence.† If this shall ever be found practicable, it will, in the result, suggest many useful hints to the statesman and politician, that might lead to arrangements highly beneficial to the nation. It is impossible to be too well informed on subjects of such vital importance to a country; and a confident hope is entertained, that the period is not far distant when such a measure will be adopted by the legislature.

The enumerations hitherto of the population only extended to the following descriptions of persons.

In the Census of 1801,

The returns are limited to ;—

- 1st. The number of Inhabited Houses.—The number of Families.—The number of Uninhabited Houses.
- 2d. The number of persons, Male and Female, including Children, exclusive of the Army, Navy, and Seamen in registered vessels.
- 3d. The number of persons chiefly employed in Agriculture,—the number in Trade, Manufactures, or Handicraft,—and the number not comprised in the two preceding classes.

In the Census of 1811,

An improvement took place, though in a small degree, since the last returns were extended to—

- 1st. The number of Inhabited Houses.—And the number of Families.
- 2d. - - Idem - Houses building.
- 3d. - - Idem - other Houses uninhabited.
- 4th. The number of Families chiefly employed in Agriculture,—the number in Trade, Manufactures, or Handicraft,—and the number not comprised in the two preceding classes.
- 5th. The number of Males and Females, including Children, exclusive of men serving in the Army and Navy, and Seamen in registered vessels.

In order, therefore, to obtain any tolerable data by which the classifications could be made, it was necessary to resort to a great variety of collateral aids for the purpose of attaining a knowledge of the approximating details, which are to be found in the Table, and also in the preceding summary abstract.

† Such a Census was made in Spain about thirty years ago, which disclosed many curious and useful facts, eminently calculated to improve statistical knowledge.

There is however another and, perhaps, a more interesting statistical view of this important and curious subject, as it relates to the productive and unproductive labourers in the United Kingdom, which it may be useful to explain,—as a means of more fully elucidating the state of society, which, in this country, differs in many respects from every other civilized nation, and will account for its superiority in arts and arms (when its population is considered) to every nation in the world.

It has been already shewn, that in this as indeed in all other kingdoms, states, and empires, the communities, of which they are composed, consist of *productive* and *unproductive* labourers. In the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, as far as approximating facts could be obtained, they seem to admit of the following classification.

Productive Labourers, by whose exertions a new Property is created every year.				Unproductive Labourers, whose exertions do not create any new Property.			
	Families.	Persons.	Income.		Families.	Persons.	Income.
Agriculture, Mines, &c.	1,302,151	6,129,142	£107,246,795	Royalty	47,437	416,835	£58,923,590
Foreign Commerce, Shipping, Trade, Manufactures, Fisheries, &c.				Nobility Gentry State and Revenue			
Fine Arts . . .	5,000	25,000	1,400,000	Army	152,000	1,056,000	34,036,280
Total .	2,813,925	13,226,131	£292,555,147	Navy Half-pay Pensioners Clergy Law Physic Universities Schools Miscellaneous Paupers			
				Total .	687,856	3,870,672	£137,966,225

Thus it would appear, that more than $\frac{1}{5}$ th part of the whole community are unproductive labourers, and that these labourers receive from the aggregate labour of the productive class about $\frac{1}{3}$ d part of the new property created annually. But it does not follow, as has been already observed, that a very great proportion of these unproductive labourers are not highly useful in their different stations in society. On the contrary, with a few exceptions, in addition to the benefits derived from personal exertions, they eminently tend to promote, invigorate, and render more productive the labour of the creating classes.

Such is the structure of civil society, that the classes, whose minds are enlarged and their intellects and faculties improved by a superior education, are

indispensably necessary as master-springs in the great machine; not only for the purpose of giving energy to the efforts of the productive labourers by means of capital furnished by every member of the community possessing real or personal property, from which they derive an income, but from the skill and superior knowledge of those who give employment to the labouring classes in agriculture, manufactures, trade, commerce, and navigation, and other objects of productive industry. But this is not the only advantage resulting from the labour of the higher and middling classes of the community; particularly in the British dominions, where they are called upon as legislators, judges, magistrates, jurors, managers of the poor, and peace-officers, to execute the functions which are required for the purpose of preserving the harmony and order, which are necessary to the existence of civil society.

It is at the same time equally true, that every state is supported *by the poverty of the community* composing the body politic. Without a large proportion of poverty there could be no riches in any country; since riches are the offspring of labour, while labour can result only from a state of poverty.

“ Poverty is that state and condition in society where the individual has no surplus labour in store, or, in other words, no property or means of subsistence but what is derived from the constant exercise of industry in the various occupations of life. Poverty is therefore a most necessary and indispensable ingredient in society, without which nations and communities could not exist in a state of civilization. It is the lot of man. *It is the source of wealth*, since without poverty there could be no labour; there could be *no riches, no refinement, no comfort*, and no benefit to those who may be possessed of wealth; inasmuch as without a large proportion of poverty, surplus labour could never be rendered productive in procuring either the conveniencies or luxuries of life.

“ The condition of man is susceptible of four material distinctions.

- | | |
|--|--------------|
| “ 1st. Utter inability to procure subsistence | } Indigence. |
| “ 2d. Inadequate ability | |
| “ 3d. Adequate ability and no more | |
| “ 4th. Extra ability, which is the ordinary state of man, and is the source of wealth. | |
| “ It is indigence, therefore, and not poverty, which constitutes the chief burthen | |

“ to which civil society is exposed. It is the state of any one who is destitute of the means of subsistence, and is unable to procure it by labour to the extent nature requires. The natural source of subsistence is the labour of the individual, while that remains with him he is denominated *poor*; when it fails, in whole or in part, he becomes *indigent*. But it may happen, and does indeed frequently happen in civil life, that a man may have ability to labour and cannot obtain it. He may have labour in his possession without being able to dispose of it. The great

“ desideratum, therefore, is to prop up poverty by judicious arrangements at those
 “ critical periods, when it is in danger of descending into indigence. The barrier
 “ between these two conditions in society is often slender, and the public interest
 “ requires that it should be narrowly guarded ; since every individual who retrogrades
 “ into indigence becomes a loss to the body politic, not only in the diminution of a
 “ certain portion of productive labour, but also in an additional pressure on the
 “ community by the necessary support of the individual and his family, who have
 “ thus descended into indigence.

“ It is the province of all governments, by wise regulations of internal police, to
 “ call forth the greatest possible proportion of industry, as the best and surest means
 “ of producing happiness and prosperity.”*

In the annexed Table, exhibiting a general view of society in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, a melancholy, though it is to be feared, a much under-rated estimate is attempted of the indigent and noxious classes, who compose part of the body politic, namely,—

† Paupers in Great Britain and Ireland	1,548,400
Vagrants, and vicious and criminal individuals	308,741
Total	<u>1,857,141</u>

As indigence is one of the greatest calamities which can afflict civil society, since, with certain exceptions of physical inabilities, it generates every thing that is noxious, criminal, and vicious in the body politic ; an enquiry into the causes which produce these blemishes, peculiar to civilized life in all countries, cannot fail to be as useful as it is curious and interesting. Indigence arises from causes which are either *innocent* or *culpable*, and admits of a division into three classes.

1st.	2d.
<i>Innocent Causes of Indigence irremediable.</i>	<i>Remediable Indigence, requiring props to raise it to its former state of independent Poverty.</i>
1. Insanity, incurable madness, and weak intellects.	1. Temporary loss of work.
2. Persons born deaf and dumb.	2. Absence from home in search of work.
3. Blind, decrepit, and lame.	3. Inability to obtain work.
4. Permanent inability to work.	4. Performance of work separated from a family.
5. Orphan children left destitute.	5. Sudden discharge of bodies of labourers, handicrafts, or manufacturers, by the failure of employers, or temporary stagnation.
6. Infancy without support or protection.	
7. Old age and infirmity.	

* See Colquhoun's Treatise on Indigence (1806) — preliminary Elucidations pages 7, 8, and 9.

† According to the Return made to Parliament in the year 1803, the number of individuals who received parochial relief in England and Wales amounted to 1,040,716! and this on a population (according to a return made to Parliament two years before) which only amounted to 9,343,561.

6. Bodies of labourers discharged from canals and other public works when finished.
7. Gardeners, bricklayers, shoemakers, and other mechanics and labourers prevented from working during severe frosts.
8. A general stagnation of manufactures.
9. A scarcity or sudden advance of the necessities of life.
10. Wives and children of soldiers embarked on foreign service.
11. Wives and children of seamen and marines in the public service.
12. Soldiers, marines, seamen, and militia discharged after war, and not getting immediate employment.
13. Servants out of place with good characters, but unable to obtain employment.
14. Temporary sickness, where there is no surplus labour.
15. Lying-in expences and funerals.
16. Temporary lameness and inability to work for a time.
17. Loss of a husband with a wife and family.
18. Loss of a cow, pigs, or other useful animals.
19. Loss by fire or other casualty.
20. Losses in trade, producing bankruptcy without fault or reproach.
3. Laziness.
4. Indolence.
5. Sloth.
6. Carelessness.
7. Thoughtlessness.
8. Improvidence.
9. Prodigality.
10. Unnecessary waste.
11. Want of frugal habits.
12. Want of economy and management.
13. Apathy and sottishness. Indifference as to what may happen.
14. Dissipation.
15. Habitual drunkenness.
16. Abandoning a helpless family.
17. Trusting to parish maintenance.
18. Wasting earnings in ale-houses.
19. Making no provision for a family, having the means of making inadequate provision.
20. Servants losing character and place for bad behaviour, and fraudulent and pilfering practices.
21. Female prostitution, producing deprivation of character, disease, and the loss of means of obtaining work.
22. Contracting debts without ability to pay.
23. Fraudulent bankruptcy, and consequent loss of credit and consequence.
24. Systematic idleness, leading the life of gipsies and others wandering as such, and assuming their manners.
25. Systematic criminality in all its numerous ramifications, producing a total loss of character.

3d.

Culpable causes of Indigence.

1. Vicious and immoral habits.
2. Idleness.

The detail thus given of the various causes, innocent and culpable, which produce the blemishes and deformities which are found to exist in civil society, is of great importance both in a moral and political point of view; since, by becoming familiar to the minds of statesmen and legislators, remedies may be applied, which may tend to lessen the evil. To eradicate it wholly is a hopeless expectation; yet it may admit of many improvements highly beneficial to the community, and in some instances very conducive to the public safety, by preserving the privileges of innocence by the diminution of criminal offences.

In considering the innocent causes of indigence, thus exhibited in one collected view, it will be seen that the irremediable cases, requiring constant and permanent support, are few in number when compared with those useful labourers broke down for the moment; but who, by the judicious application of well-timed props, might be restored to society, and their industry rendered again productive to themselves and

the nation. In many instances, however, it is to be lamented, that deprived of such aid they sink into indigence, and become a burthen on the community. It ought never to be forgotten, that all persons comprised within the class of *remediable indigence*, who can be again restored to their former rank of independent poverty, become valuable acquisitions to the body politic, since by adding their labour to the general stock the wealth and stamina of the country are augmented*.

Culpable indigence, it is much to be feared, can only find a remedy in such restraints as shall improve the morals, and produce habits of industry among this noxious class of the community, whose numbers have become exceedingly burthensome and alarming, occasioning a vast pressure on the more virtuous and industrious classes of the people, who deserve every attention.

In the concerns or pursuits of that proportion of a nation or community engaged in objects of productive labour, the interference of the governing powers is generally injurious and seldom advantageous. Those who, by their capitals and skill, give an impetus to the great springs of useful industry, are the only competent judges of the means of rendering their exertions productive; and while these exertions remain uncontrolled, they will always regulate themselves by the force and influence of competition, so as to render the labour as beneficial as possible.

The interference of the Legislature is only necessary for the purpose of augmenting the number of profitable labourers, by diminishing in the same proportion those that are unprofitable and useless.

Various measures might be adopted for the purpose of attaining this most important object. The whole force of the law, modernized and rendered applicable to the object in view, should be directed against culpable indigence. The loss sustained by the nation, through this medium, amounts to many millions a year. The resources of the United Kingdom for the beneficial employment of even a more extended population exceed that of any other state or empire in Europe.

As far as it is practicable, by means of *legislative regulations*† and appropriate encouragements, the greatest possible proportion of the people should be placed in the class of productive labourers. Virtuous and frugal habits will do much. These habits may be excited to a great extent, by adopting a new principle in the organ-

* The labouring people are certainly exposed to many casualties, from which the higher orders of society are shielded;—as damps and colds contracted by working in wet weather,—by the want of a change of raiment,—deficient bed clothes,—cold rooms and cottages,—hurts, wounds, and other accidents peculiar to their situation as out-door labourers; and they require medical and surgical assistance more frequently than others whose occupations expose them less to the inclemency of the weather. In disposing therefore of their labour (their only stock in trade) they are not on a footing with other classes of the community; since they are liable to contract various diseases, and often suffer for want of proper medical assistance and other comforts which those of a higher rank enjoy. Nothing can exceed on many occasions the sufferings of this useful class, upon which the strength, stamina, and riches of the country depend. Colquhoun's Treatise on Indigence, page 12.

† See Treatise on Indigence, pages 79 to 109, and 249 to 252.

ization of *friendly societies*,* calculated to generate economy and to encourage industry. To secure these habits of such vital importance to the poor by a *banking system*,† where their surplus earnings might be rendered productive to themselves and beneficial to their families after their decease, and to provide against casualties during life;—and the education of the children of the poor, under circumstances where the proper execution of the design and the permanency of the system shall be rendered universal in all the parishes in the United Kingdom, by adequate funds with appropriate regulations with respect to apprentices‡;—would do much for the rising generation.§

These various measures, suggested for the purpose of removing many of the evils which tend in so great a degree to the corruption of morals and to the diminution of the productive labour of the people, are detailed at considerable length in a *Treatise on Indigence*, published in the year 1806, when the improvement of the pauper system was brought under the consideration of Parliament.¶ But the failure of that measure and the pressures of the war have suspended all objects connected with the improvement of the morals of the people, or the prevention of criminal offences.

It is impossible to contemplate the mass of deformity and the numerous blemishes, which the state of society exhibits in the annexed diagram with respect to the hordes of dissolute and criminal individuals, who form so considerable a proportion of the body politic, without exciting the deepest regret that no legislative attempt

* See *Treatise on Indigence*, pages 110 to 122, and 252 to 254.

† See . . . *Idem* . . . pages 123 to 138.

‡ See . . . *Idem* . . . pages 157 to 178, and 257 to 259.

§ See . . . *Idem* . . . pages 139 to 159, and 255 to 257.

¶ In the *Treatise on Indigence*, published by Hatchard in 1806, the Author proposes the following measures, as likely to correct many of the evils which then and still greatly afflict the innocent and useful part of the community.

1st. Board of general and internal police, with functions applicable to the great object of giving habits of industry to the people, and diminishing immoral and criminal offences.

2d. A deposit bank for parochial friendly societies, calculated to excite provident habits, and to remove many of the evils and inconveniences arising from these institutions as now constituted.

3d. A public education of the children of the poor.

4th. An improvement of the existing laws relative to apprentices.

The measures thus proposed are fully elucidated and explained under their respective heads, and, if adopted by the Legislature, a confident hope is entertained, that when working together they would operate powerfully not only in reducing the number of the indigent, both remediable and culpable, but also in augmenting the productive labour of the country.

The measures suggested, as likely to effect these most beneficial objects, are neither utopian nor impracticable. They are not founded on visionary theories, either presenting insuperable difficulties in their execution or doubtful advantages in their results; and it is none of the least of the benefits attached to these measures, that the structure of the design will secure not only a correct but also permanent and never failing execution, such as prevails with respect to the revenue laws, and this too without abridging the privileges of innocence, or augmenting the public burthen, while the obvious gains to the nation must be very extensive.

has been made to remove those blemishes in the national police; by which so much misery and criminality are generated, to the total exclusion of that portion of comfort and happiness attainable through the medium of sobriety, economy, and productive industry.

The period may not be far distant when a great accession to the resident population may be rendered unavoidable by the return of individuals, who, by long service in the army and navy, have lost those habits of industry, which are necessary to their subsistence. To be prepared for such an exigency by appropriate measures calculated to assist such individuals, by rendering their labour beneficial to the country and to themselves, would reflect great honour on the Legislature, while it would prove not only an act of charity but of humanity. Fisheries upon an extended scale, and improved agriculture, and public works would do much in accomplishing this desirable object.

The science of police, still but imperfectly understood, consists not in the punishment, but in the prevention of moral and criminal offences.

By the term police, we are to understand *all those regulations which relate to the comfort, convenience, and safety of the community*, in which is comprised *the improvement of the condition of the labouring people; the more effectual prevention of moral and criminal offences; lessening the demand for punishment, by turning the hearts and arresting the hands of evil-doers, by forewarning the unwary, and preserving in innocence the untainted*:—Thus returning to police its genuine character, unmixed with those judicial powers which tend to punishment, and properly belong to magistracy alone.*

The principal advantages, to be expected from the enlightened and well educated part of civil society, and particularly those who of themselves produce nothing from labour, which can add to the resources of the state, or the general wealth of the country, will arise from the employment of their talents, and from availing themselves of their acquirements in giving effect to every measure which can tend to improve the condition of the poor by promoting habits of sobriety and industry, without which there can be no comfort or happiness.

It is a melancholy truth, obvious to all who may have devoted their attention to the manners and habits of the labouring classes, that they have retrograded in morals in the course of the last thirty years; and that a considerable change has taken

* The reader is referred to the Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Finance and Police, printed in 1798 and reprinted in 1809, at the head of which stood the present Speaker of the House of Commons, and several more persons of great talents and intelligence, some of whom are of his Majesty's Privy Council;—who, after a full investigation of the state of the national police, suggested many excellent regulations which, although strongly recommended to Parliament, have never as yet been adopted. By carrying into effect the measures, proposed in this excellent Report, much benefit would be conferred on the community by the prevention and consequent diminution of criminal offences.

place in the state of society, (particularly in vulgar life, since the commencement of the French revolutionary war,) which has been in a certain degree disorganized in every country in Europe.

It must be evident at the same time to those whose minds are directed to investigations of this nature, that those, to whom it is assigned to legislate and to direct the affairs of government, are not sufficiently aware of the changes which are rapidly taking place; or of the necessity of devising measures applicable to these changes, calculated in their nature to prevent the evils which they engender, and by appropriate laws and institutions, conformable to the new state of things, which shall counteract the mischiefs, which are to be apprehended and promote the comfort and happiness of the people.

The great object is, to devise means whereby the labour of the people may be rendered as beneficial to themselves, and as productive to the country, as it may be possible to obtain from the resources of the empire. These resources, as they are disclosed in this work, will be found to be immense, although heretofore imperfectly known or understood.

It has been already stated, that in Great Britain the agriculture of the country will admit of very considerable extension. In Ireland infinitely more. In the colonies in North America and the West Indies, a resource will be found, whenever there is a redundant population, beyond what can be contemplated even by the most sanguine mind; while the productive industry of the emigrants will aid the parent country, by the additional demand for manufactures, and by the increase of trade and navigation.

To the manufacturing community, in the United Kingdom, great advantages will result from such wise measures of government as shall not only preserve to as great an extent as possible the resources already in possession, but by opening other channels of commercial intercourse through the medium of treaties with foreign powers.

A new æra may be said to be commencing in the world, arising out of the disorganized wreck produced by the unexampled mischiefs of the French revolution. Most of the nations of Europe are on the eve of assuming a new aspect. The present state of the vast continent of North and South America cannot fail to have considerable influence with respect to the changes which are about to take place. In the various oscillations of states and empires, which the present extraordinary period exhibits, happily for the British Empire it has weathered the storm. By the valour of its people and the wisdom of its government it stands firm, possessing with this firmness a commanding influence, which may be rendered under the guidance of able and enlightened statesmen of infinite benefit, by increasing the demand for British manufactures, now capable of being augmented almost to any extent, in consequence of the great improvements and incalculable mechanical powers of machinery, applied almost to every species of productive industry, invigorated by immense and growing capitals, and aided by science, skill, experience, and industry.

It is, therefore, through the medium of an increased demand for manufactures in the colonies and in foreign countries, that the most certain resource is to be found for the beneficial employment of the people; and where this and agriculture fail, the next best resource will be found in emigration. There can be no greater misfortune than the existence of a part of the population in any country able to labour, but unable to find employment. The melancholy exhibition of a million and a half of paupers with their families, living chiefly on the labour of others, strongly evinces an error in the present system;—since it will be found on investigation, that considerably more than half a million of these degraded individuals are in the vigour of life, and whose labour, if well directed, ought to produce at least ten millions sterling a year beyond their present earnings, which is totally lost to the community, in addition to what is expended in affording a feeble and scanty subsistence.

In these days of refinement, when the science of political economy and statistical knowledge occupies the attention of the more enlightened classes of society in a much greater degree than at any former period, a confident hope is entertained, that the view of society, which is exhibited in the annexed Table, joined to the various topics connected with the national prosperity which are discussed and elucidated in this work will lead to a general revision of the laws bearing on this branch of the subject, which shall by a combination of remedies (for many will be necessary) produce those salutary results, so necessary to the national prosperity.

The incalculable importance of increasing the mass of productive labour, as the great and only prop and stamina of the state, has been already very fully discussed; but it still remains to explain a point of great importance, as it applies to the advantages which a nation derives from this labour.

Wherever chance or accident shall reconcile the people of any country to a species of food that is cheap and accessible, the labour produced will add infinitely more to the wealth of a country than where the food consumed is expensive. Thus in Ireland, where the labouring people are reared and supported on the simple diet of potatoes and butter-milk, and where under this food they become strong and athletic, that country under well directed labour will grow rich more rapidly than England, where the nourishment required costs in some instances double, and in others triple the amount of the value of the food of the Irish labourer. Scotland and the Northern counties of England and Wales must also, in proportion to the number of persons employed, yield a much greater surplus than the labour performed in the Southern counties, where the expence of maintenance from the habits of the people may upon an average be nearly double.

Nothing is of more importance in statistical researches than the knowledge of the species of food, by which the labouring people are supported in various parts of the United Kingdom. It will scarcely be believed, that in those districts which

appear most steril the poor fare better,—have a greater variety of that species of food which they prefer, and are stronger and more athletic than the labouring people in the richest and best cultivated districts, who seldom have any variety and fare worse at a much greater expence. Hence it follows, that in those districts where the greatest parsimony prevails with regard to food, the property produced from labour costs less, while it is of equal value with what is produced in districts where the people, from their peculiar habits, are less frugal and parsimonious.

Parsimony is the parent of riches. It is by this disposition to save property, that capitals are created, without which the industry of nations and communities could not be put in motion.

It is however parsimony, and not industry, which is the immediate cause of the increase of capital. Industry, indeed, provides the means which parsimony accumulates; since whatever industry might acquire, if parsimony did not store it up, the capital would never be greater, and the property of the nation would remain stationary, and could never be augmented. In fact, capitals are increased by saving, and diminished by prodigality and misconduct.

Parsimony, by increasing the capital of a nation which is destined for the employment and maintenance of productive labourers, tends to increase the number of those whose labour adds to the value of the article upon which it is bestowed. It puts in motion an additional portion of industry, which gives an augmented value to the annual quantity produced. But this is not all. The capitals thus saved have a reproductive quality when employed, not in feeding numerous guests and multitudes of menial servants, but in supporting labourers, manufacturers, and artificers, who return to their employers with a profit the value of their annual consumption.

If the prodigality of one part of the community were not counteracted by the frugality and parsimony of the other, the conduct of spendthrifts, by feeding the idle with the bread of the industrious, would tend not only to ruin themselves, but to impoverish the country.

Injudicious and unsuccessful projects in agriculture, mines, trade, commerce, manufactures, or fisheries, tend in the same manner to diminish the funds destined for the maintenance of productive labour. The capitals thus lost deprive the labourers of the employment which they had previously furnished, and the country of their reproductive quality; but experiments of this nature, by disclosing the causes by which projects have failed, are not seldom beneficial, since what has ruined many individuals has ultimately raised the fortune of others.

Mere revenue or stationary income has seldom a reproductive quality, and hence the proportion between capital and revenue seems every where to regulate the proportion between industry and idleness. Wherever capital prevails, industry, producing

some benefit to the country, is active. Wherever revenue is only to be found, it is generally surrounded by idleness or unproductive labourers.

It is capital therefore, and not revenue, that gives an impetus to the productive labour of all countries in a state of civilization. The larger the capital is, the more abundant are the resources for the beneficial employment of the people; and in proportion to the means, which a nation possesses of exporting the surplus labour thus produced, so will be the increase or the diminution of the prosperity of a country. And hence the great importance of colonies and foreign commerce.

Notwithstanding the seven expensive wars, in which this country has been engaged during the last and the present century, rendering it necessary, particularly in latter times, to remove from the productive labour of the country more than half a million of its most efficient and productive labourers, while it drew from the surplus labour of those who remained enormous sums of money annually, this excessive burthen has been sustained without appearing materially to diminish the wealth of the country. The annual income of individuals, although not productive like capital, has in this instance greatly assisted the state, while the revolutionary French war, in which the nation has been so long engaged, has furnished the means of supporting it through the medium of a greatly augmented commerce to an extent, which could not have taken place during the same period of profound peace:—yet the labour lost during the last twenty years, joined to the expences of the war, would have at this time added an enormous sum to the capital of the nation. Fortunately however for the country, a capital still remains, fully sufficient to give activity to the productive industry of the whole population on the return of peace. The great desideratum will be, to give this industry a proper and beneficial direction so as to promote the general happiness and comfort of the community, by affording them employment in every species of productive labour, and even in national works, where, as has been already observed, individual enterprise may be found inadequate to compass the whole.

To no subject connected with the vital interest of the country can the attention of those assigned to execute the powers of government be so beneficially employed, as in giving encouragement to every practicable measure, which shall lead either directly or collaterally to the full employment of the people; to effect which, a part, and even a considerable part of the public revenue could not for a limited period be more beneficially employed, while, as the labour will leave, or ought under a proper direction to leave its full value behind, no loss could arise to the state.

CONCLUSION OF THE CHAPTER.*

While the improvement of the morals of the labouring classes of the community, and the prevention of criminal offences, by proper legislative regulations, are amongst the number of the first duties of all governments, the habits of the other classes, in all instances where they trench upon the general interests of society, ought not to be overlooked.

Although there are among the highest ranks of society in the United Kingdom many excellent characters, who do honour to the exalted stations they fill in the state, by the noble example they exhibit of well spent lives devoted to objects of religion and virtue, and to the best interests of their country; yet it is to be lamented, that there are not a few who pursue an opposite course—careless with respect to their own affairs, and indifferent as to the interests of the country, their time is chiefly spent either at the gaming table, or in pursuit of the most frivolous and contemptible amusements, sinking in the view of society that respectability and consequence in the state, to which birth and fortune had assigned them.

Nothing can exalt a country more than a general exhibition of that dignity of character and public and private virtue, which is the true test of nobility. Nothing can degrade it more than a display of those deformities and blemishes, which deprive hereditary rank of that consequence in society, to which it would be otherwise entitled.

To such men, whose minds and manners are, or ought to be highly cultivated and embellished by a superior education, and whose time may be wholly devoted to acquirements calculated to instil wisdom and knowledge, the community at large naturally look up for the execution of those important duties, which are assigned them as judges and legislators.

The class, ranking second to the nobility, possesses a proportion of honourable, virtuous, and useful individuals; but here too, a stronger disposition prevails among a considerable proportion rather to imitate the vices than the virtues of the highest orders of society. Certain it is, that nothing of an elevated nature can attach (be the rank what it will) where dissipation, idleness, and extravagance constitute the whole of the occupations of life, forgetting that, without the practice of virtue even in amusements, they cannot be innocent, nor is it possible they can attain solid or rational happiness.

The third class comprises a part of the community, whose professional labours shelter them in a considerable degree from the prevailing vices of the age. Here will be found a large share of virtue, although a certain proportion, stimulated by the example of the superior classes, are in some instances too much prone to indulge

* See pages 124, 125, 126, and 127, in which the different classes of society are enumerated.

in those scenes of idleness, dissipation, and expence, which they erroneously suppose have a tendency to elevate them in the scale of society.

In the fourth and fifth classes will not only be found many very useful members of society, but by far the greatest proportion possessing religious and moral habits.

Among the sixth class there is a great diversity of character: unquestionably, much usefulness, much virtue with, at the same time, a great and evident increase of the corruption of morals. To this division of the community, not only from its comprising more than a moiety of the whole population, but from its incalculable importance in a moral and political point of view, by forming the chief organs by which the annual income of the country is created and produced, much attention is due. Whatever therefore it may be possible to accomplish through the medium of legislative regulations, which shall tend to promote the comfort and happiness of this numerous and most useful class of the community, by promoting religious, virtuous, and provident habits, will eminently tend to exalt the country,—to improve its physical strength, its revenue, its power, and its importance in the scale of nations.

The seventh class, alas! exhibits a lamentable picture of deformity, comprising indigence, vice, idleness, and criminal delinquency in all its various shades and ramifications. It is a painful subject to dwell upon; but consolation may be derived from the reflection, that there exists in the legislature those elements of power, intelligence, and wisdom, which it is earnestly to be hoped, in times of less peril and more leisure, may be productive of a very considerable diminution. To eradicate *indigence, vice, idleness, or crimes*, in this or any other country, is a hopeless case; but certainly it is susceptible of much mitigation. The misery and wretchedness, which are attached to the whole of this class, exceed all credibility. It can only be estimated by the few, who have devoted a portion of their time to investigations of a nature calculated to obtain a species of useful knowledge, which is not however accessible but by a great sacrifice of feeling, painful in the extreme, and aggravated by the impossibility of affording adequate relief.

Looking generally at the state of morals in the three kingdoms, it is no less curious than interesting to mark the distinction in vulgar life, which prevails in each.

In England much ignorance prevails, which tends greatly to the corruption of morals; while at the same time the mass of the people are tractable, and possess a great share of good nature.

In Scotland, a character totally different is exhibited. Strongly attached to the duties of religion, and almost universally taught to read by means of the national parochial schools, the mass of the labouring people are moral and parsimonious, and generally industrious, although at the same time not exempted from blemishes. The duties imperative on the established clergy to attend minutely (at least in the rural parishes) to the progress of the children in a knowledge of religious and moral duties have tended much to elevate the vulgar in Scotland above those in almost

every other country in Europe. The effect of the system pursued, at least, proves the practicability of results equally favourable by the same means in the Sister Kingdoms.

Ireland unhappily, although blessed with a land producing plenty, exhibits a state of morals in vulgar life which is truly lamentable. In spite of a numerous clergy of the church, to which a vast proportion of the people are attached, and from whom they are supposed to receive religious instruction, it appears to produce little or no moral effect. Constitutionally good tempered, although subject to paroxysms of rage and fury, which are often productive of great excesses, they are nevertheless susceptible of good impressions, and under more favourable circumstances might be rescued from the deplorable ignorance, and the influence of those ill regulated passions which render these valuable and interesting people less useful, less comfortable, and less happy than under a better system might be attainable. The country is fruitful beyond any other portion of the British Islands; and yet the majority of the people are miserable.

Certain it is, that much remains still to be done to produce those improvements in the state of civil society in the United Kingdom of which it is susceptible. The value of such improvements, as they relate to the power and resources of the country, and the elevation of the national character, are beyond all calculation.

If, happily for the British Empire, such an improved character can be given to the labouring classes of the people, high as this great nation stands in arts and arms, an advance in point of elevation, power, and general prosperity would be attained, which would probably command many years of peace, tranquillity, and happiness. On the contrary, if these sources of prosperity are suffered to lie dormant,—if the moral habits of the people shall be neglected and be suffered to retrograde, a general decay may be expected—the wealth of the country will gradually diminish, and its power and resources will be reduced.

Hitherto the vital springs, which give force and efficacy to the prosperity and happiness of almost all the civilized countries in the world, have experienced infinitely less attention than their incalculable importance deserve.

The first object is to discover, through the medium of statistical arithmetic, the actual or (if unattainable) the approximating facts which bear upon this interesting subject, without which no accurate conclusion can be drawn:—no systematic remedy can be applied. The remedy being through this medium discovered, the obstructions to its application ought then to engage the attention of those assigned to exercise the powers of government.

It is admitted, that great difficulties in many instances may occur; but while the boon, which is to be obtained, is the greatest that can be conferred upon a nation, much ought to be surmounted to gain such an inestimable prize. And a humble hope is entertained, that it may be practicable to find the means of improving

the morals of the labouring people, without trenching on the rights of communities or individuals.

It is indeed true that, notwithstanding all the blemishes which afflict the body politic, the nation has risen even under the pressure of a long and expensive war to a height far beyond what the most sanguine mind could have supposed possible but how much higher would it not have risen had these blemishes not existed?

From the peculiar nature of the war, ultimately confining a large portion of the commerce of the world to the British Empire, resources for carrying it on were generated by the extent of this commerce. On the return of peace the commerce will cease to be concentrated. It will take a new course unfavourable to this country. The nations of Europe, as heretofore, will participate in the wealth which flowed into the British ports. The rivalry, which for a time has been dormant, will again be revived and augmented. The British people ought to be prepared for such an exigency, by putting forward their whole strength, and by rendering their physical capability as efficient as possible, for the purpose not only of preventing any diminution of the resources of the state; but of extending the comfort and improving the moral habits, and the consequent happiness of the people, by a general diffusion of productive industry, rendered practicable by resources opened to the view of the people by the means which exist or which may be made to exist at home, and when these fail by a transfer of the surplus labour to the colonies, where it may still be rendered equally beneficial to the emigrants and to the Parent State.

AN ATTEMPT TO EXHIBIT A GENERAL VIEW OF SOCIETY;

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Number of Heads of Families.	RANKS, DEGREES, AND DESCRIPTIONS.	Averaged Number of Persons in each Family.	Aggregate Number of Persons in the Families of each Class.	Population of Great Britain and Ireland.			Averaged Yearly Income of the Family of each Class.	Aggregate Income of each Class of the Community in Great Britain and Ireland.
				Estimated number of Males.	Estimated Number of Females.	Estimated Population.		
1	ROYALTY:—The King, Queen, and Princesses of their Family - - -	50	50	23	27	50	£.	£.
1	The Prince Regent, the Princess of Wales, and the Princess Charlotte - - -	50	50	23	27	50	146,000	146,000
10	The remaining Princes and Princesses of the Blood, both lineal and collateral - - -	20	200	95	105	200	172,000	172,000
516	NOBILITY:—Temporal Peers, including Peeresses in their own Right	25	12,900	6,400	6,500	12,900	18,300	183,000
48	Spiritual Lords or Bishops - - -	15	720	320	400	720	10,000	5,160,000
861	GENTRY:—Baronets - - -	15	12,915	6,400	6,515	12,915	5,010	240,480
11,000	Knights and Esquires - - -	10	110,000	54,000	56,000	110,000	3,510	3,022,110
35,000	Gentlemen and Ladies living on Incomes - - -	8	280,000	130,000	150,000	280,000	2,000	22,000,000
							800	28,000,000
	STATE AND REVENUE:—							
3,500	Persons in higher Civil Offices - - -	7	24,500	12,000	12,500	24,500	980	3,430,000
18,000	Persons in lesser - - Idem. - - -	5	90,000	44,000	46,000	90,000	300	5,400,000
5,000	ARMY: (A)—Military Officers, including Surgeons Quarter Masters, Pay Masters, Engineer and Artillery Officers, Recruiting Staff-Officers, and the Commissariat - - -	5	25,000	28,000	12,000	40,000	21,000 Officers at 200l. each per ann.	4,200,000
70,000	Common Soldiers in the Regulars and Militia, including Non-Commissioned Officers and Artillery and Engineers - -	4	280,000	330,000	120,000	450,000	280,000 Soldiers Artillery and Engineers, at 35l. each per annum.	9,800,000
3,000	NAVY (B):—Naval Officers, Marine Officers, Surgeons, Purser, &c. - -	5	15,000	13,000	12,000	25,000	8,380 Officers at 250l. each per annum.	2,095,000
50,000	Seamen in the Navy and Revenue Service and Marines - - -	4	200,000	220,000	160,000	320,000	171,540 Seamen and Marines at 42l. each per annum.	7,204,680
2,500	HALF PAY, &c. (C)—Military, Naval and Medical Half-pay Officers, including Superannuated Officers, Retired Chaplains, and Widows and Children of Officers receiving Pensions - - -	5	12,500	8,200	6,300	14,500	6,500 Halfpay, &c. Officers at 100l. each per annum. 2066 Widows and Children of Officers at 100l. per annum.	856,600
	PENSIONS (D):—Pensioners of Chelsea Hospital, in and out Pensioners of Greenwich Hospital, Idem Pensioners of the Chest at Chatham Pensioners of the Royal Hospital at Kilmainham. } Averaged. -	4	80,000	62,000	30,000	92,000	42,000 In and Out Pensioners (Soldier and Sailors) averaged at 15l. each per annum.	630,000
	The above mentioned Pensioners receiving besides from Labour - - -						Idem at 10l. each per annum.	420,000
1,500	CLERGY:—Eminent Clergymen - - -	6	9,000	4,300	4,700	9,000	720	1,080,000
17,500	Lesser - - Idem - - -	5	87,500	43,000	44,500	87,500	200	3,500,000
19,000	LAW:—Judges, Barristers, Attorneys, Clerks, &c. - - -	5	95,000	46,000	49,000	95,000	400	7,600,000
18,000	PHYSIC:—Physicians, Surgeons, Apothecaries, &c. - - -	5	90,000	44,000	46,000	90,000	300	5,400,000
5,000	FINE ARTS:—Artists, Sculptors, Engravers, &c. - - -	5	25,000	12,000	13,000	25,000	280	1,400,000
	AGRICULTURE, MINES, &c:—							
70,000	Freeholders of the better sort - - -	5½	385,000	190,000	195,000	385,000	275	19,250,000
210,000	Lesser Freeholders - - -	5	1,050,000	500,000	550,000	1,050,000	100	21,000,000
280,000	Farmers - - -	5½	1,540,000	730,000	810,000	1,540,000	120	33,600,000
742,151	Labouring people employed in Agriculture, Mines, and Minerals, including Earnings of the Females - - -	4½	3,154,142	1,526,635	1,627,507	3,154,142	45	33,396,795
	FOREIGN COMMERCE, SHIPPING, MANUFACTURES, AND TRADE:							
3,500	Eminent Merchants, Bankers, &c. - - -	10	35,000	17,000	18,000	35,000	2,600	9,100,000
22,800	Lesser Merchants trading by Sea, including Brokers, &c. - -	7	159,600	79,600	80,000	159,600	805	18,354,000
8,700	Persons employing professional skill and capital as Engineers, Surveyors, Master Builders of Houses, &c. - - -	5	43,500	21,500	22,000	43,500	300	2,610,000
1,597,588	Continued - - -			4,128,496	4,018,081	8,146,577		£249,250,665

AN ATTEMPT TO EXHIBIT A GENERAL VIEW OF SOCIETY ;

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Number of Heads of Families.	RANKS, DEGREES, AND DESCRIPTIONS.	Average number of Persons in each Family	Aggregate Number of Persons in the Families of each Class	Population of Great Britain and Ireland.			Averaged Yearly Income of the Family of each Class.	Aggregate Income of each Class of the Community in Great Britain and Ireland.
				Estimated Number of Males.	Estimated Number of Females.	Estimated Population.		
Continued. 1,597,588	FOREIGN COMMERCE, SHIPPING, MANUFACTURES, AND TRADE, INCLUDING THE FISHERIES:—						£.	£.
	Continued - - -	- - -	- - -	4,128,496	4,018,081	8,146,577		249,250,665
500	Persons employing Capital in building and repairing Ships, Craft, &c. - - -	6	3,000	1,400	1,600	3,000	804	402,000
8,750	Ship Owners letting Ships for Freight only - - -	5	43,750	21,750	22,000	43,750	600	5,250,000
80,000	Aquatic Labourers in the Merchants' Service, Fisheries, Rivers, Canals, &c. - - -	4	320,000	195,000	205,000	400,000	180,000 Men averaged at 45l. each per annum.	8,100,000
44,000	Manufacturers employing Capitals in all branches, as Cotton, Wool, Flax, Hemp, Leather, Glass, Pottery, Gold, Silver, Tin, Copper, Iron, Steel, and other Metals, Silk, Paper, Books, Gunpowder, Painters' Colours, Dy'd Stuffs, &c. Beer, Porter, Distilled Liquors, Sweets, Candles, Soap, Tobacco, Snuff, Salt, &c. &c. - - -	6	264,000	129,000	135,000	264,000	804	35,376,000
900	Principal Warehousemen, selling by Wholesale - - -	6	5,400	2,500	2,900	5,400	804	723,600
140,000	Shopkeepers and Tradesmen retailing Goods - - -	5	700,000	340,000	360,000	700,000	200	28,000,000
43,750	Persons employing Capitals, as Tailors, Mantua-Makers, Milliners, &c. in the Manufacture of Stuffs into Wearing Apparel and Dresses, &c. - - -	5	218,750	110,000	108,750	218,750	180	7,875,000
42,500	Clerks and Shopmen to Merchants, Manufacturers, Shopkeepers, &c. - - -	5	262,500	130,000	132,500	262,500	95,000 at 70l. each per annum.	6,750,000
87,500	Inn keepers and Publicans licenced to sell Ale, Beer, and other Liquors - - -	5	437,500	216,500	221,000	437,500	100	8,750,000
500	Umbrella and Parasol-makers, Silk Lace Workers, Embroiderers, Domestic Spinsters, Clear Starchers, Laundresses, Manglers, &c. - - -	4	150,000	74,000	76,000	150,000	on 70,000 persons earning 50l. each per annum.	3,500,000
1,021,974	Artisans, Handicrafts, Mechanics, and Labourers employed in Manufactories, Buildings, and Works of every kind - - -	4½	4,343,389	2,103,219	2,240,170	4,343,389	48	49,054,752
1,400	Hawkers, Pedlars, Dufflers, and others with and without Licences - - -	4	5,600	2,800	2,800	5,600	45	63,000
	UNIVERSITIES AND SCHOOLS, for the Education of Youth:—							
874	Persons educating Youth in Universities and chief Schools - - -	4	3,496	1,700	1,796	3,496	600	524,400
35,000	Persons engaged in the Education of Youth of both Sexes, and generally employing some Capital in this pursuit - - -	6	210,000	100,000	110,000	210,000	204	7,140,000
	MISCELLANEOUS:—							
5,000	Clergymen regularly ordained dissenting from the Established Church, including itinerant Preachers - - -	4	20,000	10,000	10,000	20,000	100	500,000
875	Persons employed in Theatrical pursuits and attached to Theatres and Concerts, as Musicians, &c. - - -	4	3,500	1,700	1,800	3,500	200	175,000
70	Persons keeping Houses for Lunatics - - -	10	700	350	350	700	500	35,000
3,500	Lunatics and others under Mental derangement - - -	—	4,000	2,000	2,000	4,000	each person 40l. 30	160,000
	Persons confined in Prisons for Debt - - -	5	17,500	8,500	9,000	17,500		105,000
	Vagrants, Gipsies, Rogues, Vagabonds, Thieves, Swindlers, Coiners of base Money, in and out of Prisons, and common Prostitutes (including Wives and Children) - - -	—	—	129,720	179,021	308,741	Each person averaged at 12l. per annum.	3,704,892
	Persons included in the various Families above mentioned, who have Incomes from the Funds and other Sources, including also Trustees for Orphans, Minors, and Charitable Foundations and Institutions, about - - -	—	—	—	—	—		5,211,063
587,100	PAUPERS:—							
	Paupers, producing from their own Labour in miscellaneous Employments, - - -	4	1,548,400	768,350	780,050	1,548,400	10	3,871,000
	And receiving from Parochial rates about - - -	—	—	—	—	—	—	6,000,000
3,501,781				8,476,985	8,619,818	17,096,803	£.	430,521,372
Families in Great Britain and Ireland.				Males in Great Britain and Ireland, including Soldiers, Seamen, &c.	Females in Great Britain and Ireland.	Souls in Great Britain and Ireland, including the Army & Navy.		Total Yearly Income of the Population of Great Britain and Ireland.

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SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

	Families.	Persons, including Domestics.	Income of each Class.
			£.
ROYALTY	12	300	501,000
NOBILITY	564	13,620	5,400,480
GENTRY	46,861	402,915	53,022,110
STATE AND REVENUE	21,500	114,500	8,830,000
ARMY (A)	75,000	490,000	14,000,000
NAVY (B)	53,000	345,000	9,299,680
HALF PAY, &c. (C)	2,500	14,500	856,600
PENSIONERS (D)	19,000	92,000	1,030,000
CLERGY	19,000	96,500	4,580,000
LAW	19,000	95,000	7,600,000
PHYSIC	18,000	90,000	5,400,000
FINE ARTS	5,000	25,000	1,400,000
AGRICULTURE, MINES, &c.	1,302,151	6,129,142	107,246,795
FOREIGN COMMERCE, SHIPPING, MANUFACTURES, AND TRADE, including the Fisheries.	1,506,774	7,071,989	183,908,352
UNIVERSITIES AND SCHOOLS, for the Education of Youth	35,874	213,496	7,664,400
MISCELLANEOUS	9,445	354,441	9,890,955
PAUPERS	387,100	1,548,400	9,871,000
Totals	3,501,781	17,096,803	£430,521,372

AGGREGATE.

	Families.	Persons.	Income.
Agriculture, Mines, &c. - - - - -	1,302,151	6,129,142	£107,246,795
Inland Trade - - - - -	970,224	4,599,139	98,629,352
Manufactures - - - - -	464,500	2,066,500	57,223,000
Foreign Commerce and Shipping - - - - -	72,050	406,350	28,056,000
King's Military and Marine, including Pensioners - - - - -	130,500	941,500	25,206,280
Miscellaneous - - - - -	562,356	2,954,172	114,159,945
Totals - - - - -	3,501,781	17,096,803	£430,521,372

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

This Table has been formed after considerable labour in consulting the ablest Writers on Political Economy, Parliamentary and various public Documents, the Population Returns to Parliament in 1811, and every other accessible Document and information that could throw light upon the subject. The following Observations are offered by way of elucidation. The first column comprehends such Male part of the Population as are Heads of Families. The number of Families in Great Britain appears from the Returns under the Act of 1811 to be 2,544,215; assuming Ireland to contain 4,500,000 Inhabitants, the Rule of proportion will give for Ireland 957,566 Families: Total 3,501,781. Now with respect to the distribution of this Total into the various Classes of the Community, it must be evident that very much must rest upon observation and conjecture, it being difficult, if not impracticable, to ascertain the number of Heads of Families; it is, however, certain, that in almost all Classes the number of unmarried Men greatly exceed that of Heads of Families, in some instances the proportion of the former to the latter may be as 3 to 1 as in the Army and Navy, and in others as 5 to 2 or 8 to 3; we have proportioned them throughout according to the best of our judgment. Next follows the several Ranks, Degrees, &c. of Society, in Great Britain, and Ireland, which, being arranged in the order most known, cannot fail to be understood. In stating the 'averaged number of persons in each Family' due attention has been had to the medium number of persons in a Family, including Domestic, Male and Female, according to the rank and situation in life of each Family. Under the head 'Population of Great Britain and Ireland' there will be found distinguished the number of Males and Females: With the exception of Ireland which, as already observed, is estimated to contain 4,500,000 Inhabitants, the Population is stated according to the Returns under the Act of 1811; and with respect to the numbers composing the various Classes of the Community, for which there are no data, they are stated according to the best local information which could be obtained. It is observable, that the 'averaged yearly Income of the Family of each Class' is, with regard to some Families, derived from several sources; thus, the Income of some Merchants may not arise from Commerce alone, but may also be derived from the public Funds, from the Rent of Houses, Lands, &c.; some Tradesmen, besides the profits arising from Trade, derive an Income from public Securities and other sources. This circumstance has been considered in estimating the medium Income of each Class. It may also be observed, that there are in the Army and Navy a large majority of young Men that have no Families, and that have rarely any other source of Emolument than what arises from their profession (except the Officers, many of whom have independent fortunes); the calculation is therefore made upon each Head receiving pay, &c.—And this forms one of the very few exceptions to the Calculation made of an averaged Income for each Family.

(A) The Army may be stated as follows:

Regulars, according to the Military Estimates for 1812 presented to the House of Commons, (exclusive of British Troops in the East India Company's Service and of Foreign Corps) after deducting for Non-Effectives, consist of	} Officers and Men.	193,904
Embodied Militia, from the same Estimates		93,212
Total		287,116

It appears from the Army List, published for the Use of the War Office, that there are—Officers of the army, including reduced Officers receiving full pay . . .		13,140
Idem Royal Artillery . . .		929
Idem . . . Engineers . . .		206
Idem . . . Embodied Militia, taken at about 8 per Cent upon the Total number above mentioned . . .		6,525
Commissariat, about . . .		200
Total of Officers . . .		21,000

Men, including Non-Commissioned Officers, in the Regulars	180,764
Idem . . . Idem . . . Militia	86,687
Idem . . . Idem . Royal Artillery and Engineers	12,549
Total of Men, including Non-Commissioned Officers . . .	280,000

The Officers and their Families may be thus distributed:—

<i>Males.</i>	
Heads of Families . . .	5,000
Unmarried Men . . .	16,000
Children . . .	7,000
	28,000
<i>Females.</i>	
Women and Children . . .	12,000
Total . . .	40,000

The Men, including Non-Commissioned Officers, as follows:

<i>Males.</i>	
Heads of Families . . .	70,000
Unmarried Men . . .	210,000
Children . . .	50,000
	330,000
<i>Females.</i>	
Women and Children . . .	120,000
Total . . .	450,000

As the Officers, besides their regimental pay, derive Emolument from being on the Staff, commanding in Garrisons and acting as Governors of Forts, and in various Employments, their Incomes may be fairly averaged at £200 per annum.

(B) The Navy may be thus stated:—

<i>Officers.</i>	
Naval Officers . . .	5,113
Marine Do. . .	1,128
Medical Do. . .	1,482
Pursers . . .	657
Total . . .	8,380

Men, including Non-Commissioned Officers.

Seamen . . .	140,000
Marines . . .	31,540
Total . . .	171,540

Continued.

EXPLANATORY NOTES Continued.

Marine and Naval Officers and their Families may be taken as follows:—

<i>Males.</i>	
Heads of Families	3,000
Unmarried Men	5,380
Children	4,620
	<u>15,000</u>
<i>Females.</i>	
Women and Children	12,000
Total	<u>25,000</u>

Men, including Non-Commissioned Officers, thus:—

<i>Males.</i>	
Heads of Families	50,000
Unmarried Men	121,540
Children	50,000
	<u>221,540</u>
<i>Females.</i>	
Women and Children	98,460
Total	<u>320,000</u>

Naval Officers receive, besides their pay, Emolument as Commanders in Chief on Foreign Stations, Governors of Islands, and for Miscellaneous Services including Prize Money, &c.; their Incomes averaged cannot be less than £250 per Annum.

(C) It appears from the "Estimates of Ordinary of Navy and the Estimates of Army Services presented to the House of Commons for 1812,"

That the Half-pay, Superannuation Allowances, and Pensions for Officers in the Army, Navy, and Marines amounted for the Year 1812 to	£ 623,785
And Pensions to the Widows and Children of Officers in the Land and Sea Service to	84,723
Total	<u>£708,508</u>

But as many reduced Officers and Widows have other sources of Income besides these Pensions and Allowances, as Money in the Funds, Land, Houses, &c. their Incomes may be averaged at £100 per Annum, making the sum of £856,600, as stated in the Table.

(D) The number of Pensioners of Chelsea College, *In* and *Out*, according to the Estimate for the year ending the 24th December 1812, was 24,945. The Royal Hospital near Kilmainham 4,193, exclusive of *In*-pensioners. Greenwich Hospital stood as follows in 1805:—*In*-pensioners 2,410, *Out*-pensioners 3,234, Boys 200. And the Chest at Chatham in 1802 had attached to it on the Books 8,094 Pensioners, of whom 5,205 were actually paid Pensions. The total number of every description now may not be less than 42,000. The pay and clothing of Soldiers and Sailors, who are *In* and *Out* Pensioners, may be fairly averaged at £15 for each Man per annum.

Thus we have shewn, that where *data* were to be obtained they have been consulted; and although accuracy to a point is not attainable with respect to the trading Classes, yet it is presumed from the great pains and labour which have been bestowed on each branch, that the Table will be found as accurate throughout as the subject will admit of and as may be necessary for any purpose required.

CHAPTER V.

AN HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF THE PUBLIC REVENUES AND EXPENDITURE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, FROM THE EARLIEST PERIODS TO THE REIGN OF GEORGE III.

Original of Public Revenue.—In Savage Life a Tribute in kind paid to the Chief of the Tribe by his Adherents.—The Romans levied Taxes in Britain partly in kind, partly in money.—The produce of the Taxes increased under the Roman Government.—A considerable Surplus remitted to Rome.—Progress of the public Revenue to the Norman Conquest.—Annual Income of the Sovereigns of the Norman Line: William the Conqueror £400,000, William Rufus £350,000, Henry I. 300,000, Stephen 250,000.—Annual Income of the Sovereigns of the Saxon or Plantagenet Line: Henry II. £200,000, Richard I. £150,000, John £100,000, Henry III. £80,000, Edward I. £150,000, Edward II. £100,000, Edward III. £154,139. 17s. 5d., Richard II. £130,000.—Annual Income of the Sovereigns of the Line of Lancaster: Henry IV. £100,000, Henry V. £76,643, Henry VI. £64,976.—Annual Income of the Sovereigns of the Line of York: Edward IV. Edward V. and Richard III. each £100,000.—Annual Income of the Sovereigns of the House of Tudor: Henry VII. £400,000, Henry VIII. £800,000, Edward VI. £400,000, Queen Mary, £450,000, Queen Elizabeth £500,000.—Annual Income of the Sovereigns of the House of Stuart: James I. £600,000, Charles I. £895,819, The Commonwealth £1,517,247, Charles II. £1,800,000, James II. £2,001,855.—Annual Income of the Sovereigns since the Revolution: William III. £3,895,205, Queen Anne £5,691,803, George I. £6,762,643, George II. £8,522,540.—Public Expenditure.—General Reflections.

THE revenues raised for the support and defence of all empires, kingdoms, and states are of such vital importance, as they relate to the prosperity and the general happiness of every country, that in considering this branch of the subject a short historical account of its rise and progress in Great Britain and Ireland, from the earliest period to the present time, cannot fail to prove interesting.

In all nations and communities wherever the civil compact has existed, something in the shape of a revenue has been obtained from the labour of the people. It even extends to savage life, where the chief of the tribe exacts from his adherents a certain tribute, arising from agriculture, the produce of the chase,—from fishing, or from hogs, poultry, or other animals.

This species of revenue existed in England previous to the time when the natives fell under the yoke of the Romans. Although the history of that period is involved in much obscurity, yet it is said that the British chieftains or kings derived some advantage from the exercise of certain prerogatives, with which they were invested. As commanders of the forces of their respective communities, they enjoyed a share of the booty—booty which was taken in petty warfare; and it is probable they derived some revenue from the exclusive privilege of coining money. Contributions of grain and cattle (with which last the country was said to abound at that time) are supposed to have made a part of the revenue of the chief of each tribe.

According to Tacitus, the princes of the northern nations received from their vassals both grain and cattle, as a free gift and as a mark of honour and reverence to supply their necessities.

When Britain became a Roman province, a more regular system of taxation took place. The object of the conqueror was to discover, according to local circumstances, in what manner the greatest possible revenue could be drawn from every country, which fell under the Roman yoke. The taxes, paid by the Britons, were partly levied in kind and partly in money. Heavy duties were paid on goods imported and exported; and the proprietors of the mines were obliged to contribute a part of their profits for the use of the empire. Ultimately, a duty was laid on goods sold by auction or in the public market,—capitation taxes,—and imposts on legacies, slaves, houses, hearths, certain animals, and numerous other articles; and such is said to have been the excessive tyranny and oppression of the Romans, that they extended their system of taxation to dead bodies, which could not be buried until a certain duty was paid.

At the commencement of the Roman Government, in Britain, the taxes are said not to have been sufficient to pay the whole expence of the establishment; but in process of time they advanced so as to yield a considerable surplus, which was remitted to the seat of government at Rome.

Six hundred and twenty years elapsed from the departure of the Romans until the Norman conquest. During this long interval, the country was afflicted with perpetual wars and bloodshed. The kingdoms of the Heptarchy were founded by chieftains, who commanded troops attached to them by the ties of consanguinity. These chieftains generally possessed landed estates of great extent and value. Personal services were obtained from the cultivators of these lands, which, in time of war, partly answered the purpose of revenue, while a considerable sum was obtained from

the custom of commuting all punishment for crimes by pecuniary fines. A land tax was also established by Ethelred in 991, called Danegeld, to purchase a truce with the Danes, amounting to £10,000, equal to about £360,000 of the present money. In three years after, a similar truce was made of £16,000. This tax, although only intended to purchase the forbearance of the Danes, was afterwards made a perpetual branch of revenue, and was levied until 1051, when Edward the Confessor abolished it.

No accurate calculation can be made of the different sources of revenue under the seven kings, although some historians suppose it to have been equal to two and a half millions of modern money for the whole of England.

WILLIAM I.

The Norman conquest produced a new æra in the financial affairs of England. The revenue of William I. who ascended the throne on the 14th October, 1066, consisted of four different branches, namely,—

Royal Domains,
Voluntary Gifts,
Legal Taxes,
Tyrannical Exactions.*

* The following is a statement of the hereditary and other sources producing revenues to the ancient sovereigns, commencing with William the Conqueror.

1st. Property vested in the Sovereign.—Forests and Mines.

2d. Lucrative Prerogatives.—1. *Right of Seignior*y—to oblige every holder of land to defend the kingdom and the king.

2. *Escuage*,—a sum of money in lieu of military service.

3. *Quit Rents* on lands,—as a mark of the lord or king's pre-eminence.

4. *Aids*,—to pay the king's ransom, if captured, and to portion his daughters when married.

5. *Relief*,—to pay a fine for an estate on the death of the proprietor.

6. *Wardship*,—or a right to the produce of all estates during a minority.

7. *Marriage*,—or a right to receive a sum on the marriage of a minor.

8. *Fine of Alienation*,—a fine on alienating lands to a stranger.

9. *Escheat*,—Lands reverting to the crown under certain circumstances.

10. *All Treasures* found hid in the earth.

11. *Estrays*,—animals strayed.

12. *Royal Fish*,—large fish caught near the shore.

13. *Goods wrecked*,—where no owners were found.

14. *Custody of Idiots*.—Goods during their lives the property of the king.

15. Goods uninherited,—where no legal claim has been made.

3d. Military Prerogatives.—Right of declaring war and peace,—a share of plunder taken in war, &c.

4th. Judicial Prerogatives.—Right to fines and penalties.

5th. Political Privileges. —Disposal of offices, and sale of titles for money.

6th. Inquisitorial Privileges.—Fixing a price on provisions when the king and his court travelled.

7th. Commercial Privileges.—Establishing public markets, and taking toll and profits, regulation of weights and measures, &c. &c.

At that early period, the royal domains formed the chief part of the revenue of the British kings; and it was only in cases of emergency, either for defensive or offensive war, that extraordinary aids were obtained. The rude hospitality, for which the feudal courts were distinguished, required land to produce the astonishing quantities of vegetable and animal food, which were consumed at the table of the sovereign. Besides voluntary gifts, a considerable revenue was obtained as feudal superior of the whole lands in England, depending upon numerous contingencies, and producing a very considerable sum, of which no estimate can be formed. To this was annexed a very unpopular tax called *Danegeld*, varying from 1 to 6 shillings on each hyde of land, according to the exigence of the state.

Authors of great research and reputation differ as to the amount of the Conqueror's revenue. Ordericus Vitalio, a historian of some reputation, who was born about nine years after the conquest, says "that besides all the casual profits of his feudal prerogatives, William was actually in receipt of a revenue of £400,000 sterling a year.*" This monarch reigned 20 years, 10 months, and 26 days.

WILLIAM RUFUS.

William Rufus, the second son of William the Conqueror, ascended the throne of England, according to his father's destination, on the 9th September, 1087.

The whole of the thirteen years of this tyrant's government was marked by an uniform and perpetual series of extortion and oppression; not only practised towards the laity, but also the clergy, who had great reason to be dissatisfied:—Since, as often as a vacancy occurred in a bishopric or an abbey, he seized the temporalities, and farmed them out to his favourites, or to the highest bidder; while in those instances where he was induced to fill a vacancy in the church, he exacted considerable sums of money from those who received the appointments.

The sums of money he obtained from the plunder of the church must have been very considerable; since at the period of his death he held in his own hands, the archbishopric of Canterbury, the Bishopric of Winchester and Salisbury, and twelve of the richest abbacies in England.

* Hume and Henry, two celebrated historians, consider incredible that the Conqueror could possess such a revenue. Mr. Hume remarks, that a pound of silver in those days contained thrice the weight it does at present, amounting to £1,200,000 of modern specie; and as this sum would then purchase ten times more of the necessities of life than at present, the £400,000 revenue, which the Conqueror was supposed to possess, would be equal to about £10,000,000 of modern money. Voltaire estimates his revenue at £5,000,000 of modern money, and his wealth at much less than the ancient writers. Dr. Henry computes the Conqueror's revenue as equal in efficacy to £5,808,975, while Lord Littleton states it at £5,369,925.

Not only did this monarch lay a tax of 4s. on every hide of land on the laity, to enable him to acquire the possession of Normandy, but in addition to this heavy burthen, great sums were extorted under the name of benevolences; but as it was known he could punish all who declined, it assumed the feature of a compulsory exaction. His rapacity procured him the name of the *Red Dragon*, and his miserable subjects felt its force in the violence and tyranny of his government.

The close of the life of this monarch furnishes an useful lesson on the vanity of human ambition. After despoiling his elder brother Robert of the Duchy of Normandy, he meditated the acquisition of the Dukedom of Aquitaine, and even looked forward to the conquest and sovereignty of France; but in the midst of these dreams of ambition, while engaged in his favourite diversion of hunting, an arrow from the bow of an unknown hand pierced his body, and put a period to his existence, after a reign of 12 years, 10 months, and 24 days.

HENRY I.

Henry I. the third son of the Conqueror, in the absence of his brother Robert, who was absent in the crusade, mounted the throne on the death of Rufus, on the 2d of August, 1100. He lost no time in assuming the kingly dignity. The regalia and royal treasures, kept at Winchester, were instantly seized; a council was hastily assembled at London, by whom his title to the crown was recognized; and in less than three days after his brother's death, the ceremony of his coronation was performed at Westminster by the Bishop of London.

As Henry's title to the throne was highly questionable, he found it necessary to conciliate the affections of the people by a system of government different from that of his brother. Accordingly, soon after his coronation he granted a charter, which contained many articles favourable to the liberty of the people; and it proved not only a prelude, but actually formed the basis upon which the *Magna Charta* of King John was afterwards founded. Yet Henry occasionally chose to forget his engagements to his subjects, to whom alone he was indebted for his crown; since contrary to an express clause in his charter, he seized the temporalities of the Archbishop of Canterbury, sold the woods, plundered the tenants, and kept possession of the revenues for five years. On marrying his daughter Matilda to Henry IV. Emperor of Germany, he levied 3s. upon every hide of land, amounting in the whole as is supposed to £800,000 of modern currency, which proved in the highest degree oppressive. Excuses however are offered for the conduct of this monarch, (who has been in general represented in a favourable light by historians) grounded on his anxiety to acquire and afterwards to preserve the Duchy of Normandy, which many of his English subjects considered essential. In the fifth year of his reign his people were

greatly oppressed to raise a sum of money, for the purpose of defraying the expences of an expedition to the continent, upon which the possession of Normandy depended; to obtain which a tax was even laid on churches, and every incumbent was made answerable for the rate at which his parish church was assessed. Two hundred parish priests in their surplices met the King on his road to London, and on their bare knees pleaded for some mitigation of this oppressive exaction; but without the least effect, for Henry never suffered pity to get the better of his interest.

In the seventeenth year of this reign, many heavy taxes were imposed by Henry, to enable him to carry on a war against France for the security of Normandy.

The reign of this monarch is distinguished by an important alteration with respect to revenue. The rents of the royal domains, which had been formerly paid principally in kind, were now converted into money. In those days an ox was valued at *one shilling*, and a sheep at *fourpence*. Henry reigned 35 years and 4 months.

STEPHEN.

Stephen succeeded Henry I. on the 1st December, 1135. He was the grandson of William the Conqueror by his daughter Adela, who had been married to his father the Earl of Blois, but being the third son of this marriage, and both his elder brothers alive, he could have no hereditary claim. His attempt, therefore, to seat himself on the throne of England was one of the boldest attempts recorded in history. He opposed the Empress Matilda, the daughter of his predecessor, who undisputedly represented the Norman line, and had some pretensions to the inheritance of the Saxon Kings of England.

Such, however, was the unsettled state of succession to the crown, and so much were the people of that age fascinated by bold and daring enterprizes, and so attached to men of gallantry and sports, that Stephen found his attempts successful beyond his most sanguine expectations. He was anointed King of England soon after his arrival, and assumed the royal authority with scarcely any opposition. It proved however unfortunate for the country, since the reign of this monarch exhibited a series of perpetual war and bloodshed. The state of the nation became deplorable. Some even forsook their native country to avoid the miseries under which it groaned. A great number of needy foreigners, brought over by Stephen to assist him in his usurpation, every where spread horror and devastation. Industry of all kinds was paralised; agriculture was totally neglected, the fields lay fallow, the towns were deserted, while desolation and famine overspread the land.

Stephen, on his coronation, engaged to abolish the odious tax of Danegeld; but the necessity of his affairs compelled him to exact it, notwithstanding his oath and a charter which he had granted. It was the only regular tax he imposed. During

the greatest part of his reign, he supported his troops and maintained his dignity by plunder and extortion. He is also accused of having alienated the demesnes of the crown, of having debased the coin,—and of selling to the highest bidder *honors*, offices, dignities, and benefices in the church—the last pitiful resource of a profuse and needy monarch.

During this and the preceding reigns from the Norman conquest, little progress was made in the knowledge of finance. It was understood the King should live on his own domains, and on the income arising from his feudal prerogatives; and therefore every species of taxation was an object of aversion on the part of the people. This monarch's reign terminated after the lapse of 18 years, 10 months, and 24 days.

*Summary View of the Estimated Revenues of the preceding Sovereigns of the
NORMAN LINE.*

William the Conqueror at the commencement of his reign, 14th Oct. 1066,	£400,000
William Rufus Idem 9th Sept. 1087,	350,000
Henry I. Idem 2d Aug. 1100,	300,000
Stephen Idem 1st Dec. 1135,	250,000

HENRY II.

The first tax on personal property in England was levied by *Henry II. (the first of the Saxon line)* who ascended the throne on the 25th October, 1154—which amounted to two pence in the pound on the amount of every individual's net effects, after deducting the debts owing to be verified upon oath, and one penny in the pound for the four following years. This tax was afterwards raised to one tenth part of all personal property, as in 1188 intelligence had been received that Jerusalem had been taken by the Sultan of Egypt, requiring great exertions on the part of all Christian princes. On this occasion the English are said to have paid above £70,000, and the resident Jews about £60,000, together about £2,000,000 sterling of modern money. It appears that during this reign the unpopular tax of Danegeld totally ceased. It continued 34 years, 8 months, and 11 days.

RICHARD I.

Richard the 1st (Cœur de Lion) the successor of Henry, ascended the throne on the 6th of July, 1189. He incurred great expences in the crusades, and a heavy sum was levied on his subjects to pay his ransom, which was said to amount to £100,000 of silver. His necessities were so great in consequence of the constant wars

in which he was engaged, that the odious tax of Danegeld, under the less obnoxious name of Hydage, being at the rate of 5s. for every hyde of land, was revived. In this reign also a revenue was obtained from licences, required from persons who engaged in the exercise of tournaments. Richard's reign terminated after the lapse of 9 years and 9 months.

JOHN.

The reign of *John, the successor of Richard, which commenced on the 6th April, 1199*, was rendered remarkable by his tyranny on the one hand, and the concessions he reluctantly made to his subjects on the other, by the great charter of the liberties of England. Happily for the nation this monarch's reign continued only 7 years and 12 days.

HENRY III.

Henry the 3d, the successor of John, succeeded to the crown in his 9th year, on the 19th October, 1216. He reigned upwards of 56 years. His government was weak, and not much respected either at home or abroad. His subjects complained of his rapacity; and his extravagance and profusion reduced him to great difficulties. In this reign the revenue of the customs had increased to £6,000 a year.

EDWARD I.

The reign of *Edward the 1st (Henry's successor) which commenced on the 16th November, 1272*, was more splendid; and he has been considered as uniting in his character the legislator, the statesman, and the hero. His reign was distinguished by the final establishment of Magna Charta, with additional articles of great importance. This reign is also remarkable for severities exercised on the Jews,—besides large sums of money extorted from them on his accession to the throne, and afterwards by a poll tax in the 3d year of his reign; in 1290 all the property of these unfortunate people was confiscated to the use of the crown, and many were executed, in particular 280 were hanged in one day, charged with adulterating the coin, and above 15,000 were plundered of all their wealth and banished the kingdom. Edward extorted large sums from the church in spite of the Pope's bull, while in this reign taxes on the exportation and importation of goods became a considerable branch of the revenue. The duty of tonnage and poundage was first introduced in this reign, in February, 1304. The King granted a charter to the alien merchants in England, in which a tariff of duties was fixed on certain articles imported and exported. The 25th year of the reign of this monarch, anno 1297, was rendered remarkable by the abolition of all other means of taxing the inhabitants of cities and boroughs, excepting

by their representatives in Parliament. This monarch reigned 34 years, 7 months, and 21 days.

EDWARD II.

The reign of *Edward the 2d* commenced on the 7th July, 1307. It comprised a period of about twenty years, and is remarkable for the inconsiderable amount of the taxes levied on his subjects. His father, Edward 1st, had completely abandoned the power formerly exercised by the crown to raise money under the authority of the royal prerogatives; so that this expedient could not safely be resorted to by a prince in every respect inferior to his father in talents and abilities.

The subsidies granted, which were principally intended to carry on the war against the Scotch, where he had been completely unsuccessful at the battle of Bannockburn on the 23d June 1314, gave no encouragement to furnish him with new supplies. The anxiety however of the English nation, at that time, to accomplish the conquest of Scotland induced Parliament to pass an act in 1316, by which every village, town, and city in the kingdom were ordered to furnish a certain number of well armed soldiers for the reduction of that country, and 1-15th part of the moveables of the laity was granted to render the conquest more complete; but it was then too late. This reign terminated after the lapse of 19 years, 6 months, and 20 days.

EDWARD III.

The reign of *Edward III.* commenced on the 27th January, 1327; and may be considered as the most splendid in English history. His own victories; but still more those of his son the Prince of Wales acquired superior lustre at Cressy, Sluys, and Poitiers. These acts of successful warfare induced his subjects to submit to exorbitant taxes. The liberality of Parliament was unbounded; a variety of grants denominated tenths, fifteenths, and twentieths were granted to Edward, and also subsidies in kind, such as the ninth sheaf, the ninth lamb, and a further subsidy on wool.

The first instance of an actual grant of money took place in the 45th year of this monarch's reign (anno 1371) when Parliament voted £50,000 for carrying on the war against France, to raise which sum every parish in England was assessed £1. 3s. 4d;—But the number of parishes being then unknown, the rate ultimately amounted to £5. 18s. 0d. on each. Edward had found means to raise the customs of London to 12,000 marks a year. The first complete legal grant of tonnage and poundage, imposed by a full parliament, and extending to natives as well as foreigners, was in 1373, since which these duties have continued with hardly any exception. In this reign a poll tax was resorted to, and various other exactions, for the purpose

of carrying on the war, which occasioned much clamour. But all that could be obtained being insufficient, the King had recourse to foreign countries, where he made his wars feed themselves by plunder.

By the treaty of Bretigny, the French king's ransom was fixed at 3,000,000 of crowns of gold, equal to £1,500,000 sterling, of which a moiety was paid. The ransom of the King of Scotland was 100,000 marks sterling; the greater part, if not the whole, was received. Besides this, he is said to have received £50,000 sterling from the Duke of Brabant, as the marriage portion of his daughter Margaret, the intended bride of Edward Prince of Wales, and £30,000 a year from Ireland, after defraying the expence of its government. But all these sources of wealth, which poured in upon the monarch, did not relieve him from his pecuniary difficulties. His distress was such that his queen pawned her jewels, and he himself was under the necessity of pledging the regal crown of England in security for money borrowed, which remained unredeemed for eight years.

The conclusion of this monarch's reign formed a melancholy contrast to its former glory. Not only were all his conquests in France torn from him (Calais excepted) but the ancient patrimony of his family on the continent was confined to Bayonne and Bourdeaux; and he, who had desolated every province in France and held its sovereign in captivity, while his renown spread over all Europe, was glad to accept of any terms his enemies condescended to dictate, and he also who, at the commencement of his reign, had the dominion of others, towards its close trembled for his own. He reigned 50 years, 5 months, and 25 days.

RICHARD II.

On the 21st June, 1377, *Richard II.* succeeded his grandfather Edward the 3d, at a very early period of life. His subjects became turbulent and factious during his long minority. His education was neglected, which rendered him not well fitted for his high station, or the difficult circumstances into which he was led partly by his own indiscretion, and perhaps still more by the temper of the times.

In the second year of this king's reign, his ministers obtained a subsidy or tax, the object of which was to lay the burthen chiefly on the opulent. It was levied partly by a poll, and partly by a tax on income. The sum to be raised was £160,000, and was larger than ever had been until now demanded from Parliament. The rich complained, and their influence procured an alteration of the law, levying one shilling upon every person in the kingdom above fifteen years of age (beggars only excepted). This mode of taxation had ever been odious to the English nation, and this in particular excited much indignation. The people flew to arms, and having chosen Tyler Straw, and others as their leaders, they appeared determined to effect a revolution in the government.

The insurrection was however fortunately quelled without much bloodshed, and the king, although only sixteen years of age, greatly distinguished himself, which impressed his subjects with favourable presages of his future government; nor were these hopes diminished when upon taking the regal power into his own hands, he voluntarily remitted some subsidies which had been granted to him. A rare example in the English history. His government however afterwards became unpopular, and in many instances arbitrary; and the catastrophe of his death terminated the Saxon line of kings. He reigned 22 years, 3 months, and 8 days.

*Summary View of the estimated Revenue of the preceding Sovereigns of the
SAXON or PLANTAGENET LINE.*

Henry II. at the commencement of his reign,	25th October,	1154	. .	£200,000
Richard I. Idem	6th July,	1189	. .	150,000
John Idem	6th April,	1199	. .	100,000
Henry III. Idem	19th October,	1216	. .	80,000
Edward I. Idem	16th November,	1272	. .	150,000
Edward II. Idem	7th July,	1307	. .	100,000
Edward III. Idem	27th January,	1327	. .	154,139
Richard II. Idem	21st January,	1377		130,000

HENRY IV.

On the death of Richard the II^d, *Henry the IVth, of the House of Lancaster, succeeded to the throne on the 29th September, 1399.* A most calamitous period in the affairs of England now ensued, arising from the civil wars between the Houses of York and Lancaster, which lasted eighty-six years with alternate success, marked by anarchy, bloodshed, and crimes.

The contest however for the crown between the rival houses was favourable to the liberties of the people, who were courted by both parties; and the result was, that no attempt was made either to infringe upon Magna Charta, or to impose any tax except under the sanction of Parliament.

This monarch was the son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster. Henry mounted the throne without opposition, and filled it in a manner not unworthy of the crown, had it not been obtained by violence and usurpation. During this as well as the preceding reign the revenue of the customs became more and more productive, arising from the increase of trade and an augmentation of the duties. A tax upon places and pensions and grants from the crown was also imposed in this reign. The king by this statute was empowered (with the exception of the ministers of state, judges, and officers of the court) to take one year's profit of all annuities, fees, or wages,

granted to any person since the reign of Edward III. together with all revenues alienated from the crown, unless either granted to the royal family or confirmed by Parliament; and all patents of pensions or annuities of life since the 40th of Edward III. were ordered to be brought in and examined, that such as were undeservedly bestowed might be revoked.

In the course of this reign several instances occurred of what was called a subsidy, which was probably a tax on income or real and personal property; but it was granted on the express condition, that it should not become a precedent in after times. And with this view, it was intended to be concealed from posterity and from historians, "*as an impost of monstrous birth.*"

Henry's household, which had been extremely expensive during the preceding reign, was reduced to £10,000 a year; but in the eleventh year of his reign it was augmented to £16,000. His income, during the twelfth year of his reign, is said to have amounted only to £48,000 per annum. He reigned only 13 years, 5 months, and 21 days.

HENRY V.

Henry V. succeeded his father on the 20th March, 1413. It is interesting to know something of the pecuniary resources of a monarch, who not only meditated, but had almost accomplished the conquest of France. Historians are at variance upon this point; but according to Sir John Sinclair, Henry's revenue may have amounted to £80,000 per annum, or 160,000 pounds of silver, which he supposes equivalent to £500,000 of modern currency. His reign terminated after the lapse of 9 years, 5 months, and 11 days.

HENRY VI.

Henry VI. succeeded to the throne the 31st August, 1422, when only nine months old, and although he was crowned sovereign both of France and England, he lived to see himself without a crown, a subject, or a home. The beginning of his reign was not burthensome to his subjects, and it is said he had only one subsidy granted to him during seven years, from 1437 to 1444; and that the loss of France was attributed to the scantiness of his supplies. After some temporary grants of tonnage and poundage these duties were at last given during the King's life; all aliens paid a double duty. Several subsidies or pound rates were also granted to Henry in the 10th, 14th, and 27th years of his reign: the last of these was remarkable in consequence of the gradations, which were introduced upon the principle of modern times—

Persons, possessed of an income of 20s. and from thence to £20,	paid only 6d. in the pound.
Persons having from £20 to £200 per annum	paid . . 1s. in the pound.
All estates above £200	paid . . 2s. in the pound.

Foreigners were extremely obnoxious and unpopular during this reign. Not only those who were resident, but also who came occasionally for commercial purposes, were subject to poll taxes, from which the natives were exempted. In the 31st year of this monarch's reign, to the reproach of the government and the legislature, this tax was raised from 6d. and 16d. to 20s. on those who landed and resided six weeks, while denizen housekeepers paid 10 marks or £6. 13s. 4d. each. Money was also raised by the ransom of foreign princes:—James the 1st of Scotland, although not a prisoner, was required to pay £40,000, while the Duke of Orleans, taken prisoner and detained from the battle of Agincourt, was at last released on paying 54,000 nobles, equal to £36,000 sterling.

This monarch exacted sums of money from his subjects under the name of benevolences, accompanied however by a threat, that if they failed, it would be taken from them by means much less pleasing.

There is on the rolls of Parliament a particular account of Henry's revenue, by which it appears that the annual produce, in consequence of the decrease of the customs and mismanagement in the collection, had fallen to £64,946. 16s. 4d. They had been greatly diminished during his minority by the mismanagement and negligence of those in power. And Parliament furnished little assistance in carrying on the war against France. In the 29th year of the reign of this improvident monarch, his debts amounted to the enormous sum of £372,000, to discharge which Parliament gave some assistance. His reign was protracted to 38 years, 6 months, and 4 days.

Summary View of the estimated Revenues of the preceding Sovereigns of the

LINE OF LANCASTER.

Henry IV. at the commencement of his reign on the 29th September, 1399	£100,000
Henry V. Idem 20th March, 1413	76,643
Henry VI. Idem 31st August, 1422	64,976

EDWARD IV.

Edward IV. was the first prince of the line of York that ascended the throne of England, which took place on the 4th March, 1460. The poverty of the crown at this time was so great, that it rendered a resumption of the crown lands necessary in order to obtain a revenue, to which the Parliament readily agreed; but a considerable aid had been previously obtained by the forfeiture of the estates of no less than 140 of the principal nobility and gentry of England, who had supported the House of Lancaster.

This monarch also received several grants from his Parliament, but proving insufficient, he received a benevolence from the clergy, then denominated a voluntary subsidy, in the first year of his reign. Having engaged afterwards in a war with

France, a considerable sum was obtained by convening his wealthiest subjects, and laying his necessities before them.*

Edward's expedition to France produced a peace with Louis XI. with 75,000 crowns, to indemnify him for his expences, besides an annuity of 50,000 crowns for their joint lives. The transaction was considered as disgraceful by the nation, and excited so much discontent that the king made no application to Parliament; but resorted to other means to obtain a revenue to supply his necessities. With this view, he is said to have extorted large sums from those whose titles to estates were in any respect defective, in order to have their grants confirmed, while the church complained of exorbitant fines he demanded for the restitution of temporalities, and the sale of such bishoprics as became vacant. Among other expedients to obtain money, he also engaged in commercial enterprises to a considerable extent.

During the whole of this reign the expences of the household were a perpetual source of complaint. Edward promised to restrain them, but the hospitality of the kings of England rendered reformation very difficult; and Parliament were at length obliged to allow him £11,000 per annum out of the revenues of the customs to assist in defraying these expences. His reign terminated after the lapse of 22 years, 1 month, and 5 days.

EDWARD V.

Edward V. an unfortunate prince, succeeded his father when only twelve years of age on the 9th of April, 1483. He can hardly however be said to have actually reigned, although the government of the country was carried on in his name for about two months. His uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, employed the whole time in planning the destruction of the young monarch and his brother the Duke of York; and, being proclaimed king, vainly hoped to secure the power he had acquired by the infamous murder of his nephews.

RICHARD III.

Richard III. paved the way to a throne by deceit, treachery, wickedness, and murder. Happiness could not be expected under such a load of crimes. He usurped the throne on the 22d June, 1483

* A ludicrous incident is stated by Sir John Sinclair, in his History of the Public Revenue, page 157, Vol. I. with regard to this benevolence. A rich widow, advanced in years, was personally applied to by Edward for her benevolence. She was so much pleased with Edward's person (who was considered the handsomest man of his time) and the graceful manner in which he made the request, that she immediately answered,—*By my troth for thy lovely countenance thou shalt have even twenty pounds.* The sum was so very considerable, that the king thought himself bound in token of his satisfaction to give the old lady a kiss, who was so much delighted with this unexpected mark of royal favour, that she added twenty pounds to her former donation.

Richard's reign terminated in two years and two months,—furnishing a memorable instance, that valour and ability united were not sufficient to preserve a crown on the head of an usurper.

Richard, wishing to ingratiate himself with the people, assembled a Parliament, and procured an act to abolish for ever the mode of exaction called *benevolence*, which had long excited alarm on account of its illegality; yet this tyrant afterwards exacted a benevolence himself. The only grant he obtained during his short reign was that of tonnage and poundage for life. By this time, the customs had become so important a branch of revenue, that no English monarch of those days could carry on the government without the aid those duties afforded.

*Summary View of the estimated Revenue of the preceding Sovereigns of the
LINE OF YORK.*

Edward IV. at the commencement of his reign on the 4th March, 1460	} £100,000
Edward V. Idem 9th April, 1483	
Richard III. Idem 22d June, 1483	

HENRY VII.

Henry VII. ascended the throne of England on the 22d August, 1485, being the first of the dynasty of the House of Tudor. It became a most important æra in the English history, as he himself being acknowledged to be the representative of the royal branch of Lancaster by his marriage with Elizabeth daughter of Edward IV. and heiress of the line of York; the two rival houses were thus united, and thus the fatal contest, by which the best blood of the country had been spilled, was brought to a conclusion.

Henry's encouragement of commerce, and the measures he pursued for reducing the power of the ancient nobles and exalting the commons, produced changes of great importance to the country. The discovery of the new world in the west, and the means of reaching the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope, particularly distinguished this reign; and opened new channels to commercial enterprise, which in the result operated powerfully in producing an increase of revenue.

Henry, like his predecessor, obtained a grant of the tonnage and poundage duties for life, and the customs from this time became a permanent branch of the royal income. He also received considerable grants from the different Parliaments he assembled in the course of his reign; but the king was sometimes so exorbitant in his demands, and the Parliament were so prodigal of the public money, that it gave rise to very dangerous insurrections. The harshness of Henry's government, and his general unpopularity, excited such discontent in Yorkshire and Durham, that a re-

bellion suddenly broke out, but in a battle with the king's forces it was speedily crushed.

In the year 1497, Parliament voted £120,000 under a pretence of some incursions of the Scots. The inhabitants of the West, who thought themselves secure, murmured at this imposition, and the people in Cornwall in particular resorted to arms. They approached the capital 16,000 strong; but the king's troops defeated them in a battle fought near Blackheath, and 2000 of the insurgents expiated the rebellion with their blood.

Although Richard III. by an act of the legislature had abolished benevolences for ever, yet Henry ventured, on two different occasions, to resort to this unpopular and unconstitutional mode of levying money under pretence, that Richard being an usurper his laws were invalid. Having procured the consent of Parliament, the City of London alone paid £9,688. 17s. 4d. In 1504 a second benevolence was levied; but the people, knowing he had no occasion for the money at the time, were dissatisfied with such repeated exactions; and therefore it was less productive than the former. In the same year he obtained a grant of £31,006. 4s. 7d. in consequence of the marriage of his eldest daughter to James IV. of Scotland and of his eldest son Arthur, who died soon after having been made a knight. This expence ought by law and usage to have fallen on the feudal lords and their vassals; but it was levied on the whole community, and was rendered particularly obnoxious and unpopular.

Henry's avarice was excessive. He left no expedient untried by which he could fill his coffers. He even made profit by letting out ships to hire, and by lending money to merchants on interest, whose capitals were inadequate to the enterprises they had in view. He obtained from Charles VIII. of France 745,000 crowns, (£186,450 sterling,) and also an annual tribute or pension of 25,000 crowns in lieu of a pretended claim upon Brittany, which he boldly urged, although not well founded. Two hundred thousand ducats were also given to him by Ferdinand King of Spain with his daughter Catherine, married first to his son Arthur, and after his death to Henry his second son; which was productive afterwards of great calamities to England, and was only solemnized to prevent the king from refunding the large marriage portion he had received.

Although not in want of money, Henry renewed the obsolete mode of extorting money by compelling persons possessed of £40 a year in land to receive knighthood, or compound in its stead.

In the latter part of his reign, a general system of oppression took place for the purpose of filling his coffers. Every penal law, however ancient or injurious to the public interest, was rigorously enforced; and he found rapacious judges his willing instruments in this odious oppression.

Having received more and spent less money than any of his predecessors on the throne of England, he left at his death £1,800,000, equal to £2,750,000 of modern

money. Some authors have magnified his treasure to £4,500,000, besides plate and jewels; but taking it at the lowest computation, and calculating upon the depreciation of money, it would be equivalent to at least £3,000,000 of the present circulating specie. His wealth, however, could afford him no consolation in the hours of sickness and on the bed of death. He reigned 23 years and 8 months.

HENRY VIII.

Henry VIII. ascended the throne of his father on the 22d April, 1509. No person now living will read the history of the reign of this tyrant without estimating the blessings he enjoys under the present free and mild government; so different from that of the subjects of Henry, who groaned under a constant series of injustice, oppression, and cruelty.

No sooner had Henry dissipated the immense treasures left him by his father, than he obtained many considerable grants from Parliament under various denominations. In the year 1523, a Parliament was called for the purpose of raising supplies for carrying on the war with France. Cardinal Wolsey, who advised this war, went in person to the House, and after a long speech demanded £800,000, at the rate of £200,000 a year for four years;—A demand so exorbitant and without example was refused, and only half the sum voted, to which a small addition was afterwards made. Henry, enraged at the conduct of Parliament, sent for Edward Montague, one of its greatest leaders and a lawyer of distinguished eminence, and told him, "*that if the supply did not pass, his head should answer for it next morning.*"

In the 4th year of the reign of this monarch a poll tax was granted, in addition to other impositions—

A Duke paid 10 marks,
An Earl . . . 4 pounds,
A Baron . . . 2 pounds,
A Knight . . . 1 pound, 10 shillings,

and, besides other rates, every person of the age of fifteen and upwards paid 4d.

Henry appropriated the first fruits and tenths of the church livings, which formerly belonged to the Pope, to his own use. He followed his father's example by laying foreign princes under contribution. He demanded 600,000 crowns previous to the restitution of Tournay, which had been taken by the English. In a treaty of peace, concluded at London anno 1527, Henry agreed to renounce all claim to the crown of France, on himself and his successors receiving for ever 50,000 crowns a year. An attempt was made under Wolsey's administration to raise money by royal proclamation; and commissions were issued, exacting four shillings in the pound from the clergy, and three shillings and fourpence from the laity. So tyrannical a measure excited great clamour, and happily for the liberties of England the King was forced to abandon it.

Henry's profusion and extravagance were constantly rendering his finances unequal to his profuse expenditure. Among other expedients to obtain money, he altered the old standard of the coin; he enhanced the price of gold and silver to a considerable extent; and disgraced the dignity of the crown by coining base money, and ordering it to pass current by proclamation.

In 1523, this monarch imposed a general tax under the pretended name of a loan, amounting to five shillings in the pound on the clergy, and two shillings on the laity; but those who contributed had reason to repent of their confidence and attachment, for an act passed soon after abolishing all the debts which the king had incurred since his accession to the throne, in which this loan was included; and the favourites of Wolsey, who had advised this measure and who contributed largely, lost their money, which to the public at large was not a matter of regret, that a mode of supply so dangerous to public liberty should be discredited.

Henry's tyranny and rapacity knew no bounds. To extort money illegally from his subjects was not enough. He had the insolence and effrontery to compel them to give that as a free gift, which was actually forced from them by compulsion. In the 35th year of his reign he extorted £70,000, under what he termed an amicable Graunté, and meeting with much opposition from the citizens of London, on whom such exactions were particularly severe, he made an example of two of the most refractory aldermen, by inflicting a fine and imprisonment on one, and compelling the other to serve in the war against the Scots, by whom he was taken prisoner.

The king's prodigality and extravagance continuing to exceed his revenue, he at last turned his attention to the church. He procured first from his church and parliament a right of supremacy, and then, *as head of the church*, he appointed Cromwell his Vicar General, with instructions to employ commissioners for the purpose of visiting the monasteries, and of making the strictest enquiry into the morals and behaviour of those who inhabited them. The report made is said to have been so unfavourable to the character of these religious hypocrites, as to render their suppression popular with the people, as well as profitable to the crown. By an act passed in 1536, under the pretence that no reformation of the vices of the monks in lesser monasteries could be effected but by their dissolution, all such institutions under £200 a year were given to the crown. Three hundred and seventy-six monasteries were suppressed by this act, whose landed property produced above £32,000 per annum, and whose personal effects yielded above £100,000, although disposed of greatly under their value.

The wealth however which Henry had thus obtained was soon exhausted,—which impelled him to look deeper into the views of the clergy, and to extend his plan still farther. With this view, in consequence of a second resolution two years afterwards, the greater monasteries were suppressed, and six hundred and five great abbies, together with ninety colleges and one hundred and ten hospitals for the relief

of the poor were annihilated *by one act!* The monks, dreading the king's authority, previously delivered up their property into his hands, and all doubts as to the legality of this surrender was removed by this act.

But still this vast additional acquisition did not satisfy Henry's rapacity. Under the pretence of regulating the clergy, many of the bishops were compelled to surrender the landed property of their sees into his hands. No less than seventy manors were taken from the Archbishop of York, while other dioceses suffered in proportion. The monasteries in Ireland and the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem were also suppressed; and to complete the whole an act was passed by Parliament, granting to the King the revenues of the two universities, and all the chauntries, free chapels, and hospitals in the kingdom.

It is estimated, that the religious establishments thus suppressed by Henry must have then amounted to about £273,000 a year, and at a moderate computation would at this time be little short of £5,000,000. The abbey of St. Alban's, which was valued only at £2,500 year, possessed estates which a century after yielded £200,000 per annum.

Many schemes were proposed to render the acquisition of this property useful to the community and the nation, by founding seminaries for the study of the law, for the acquisition of useful languages, and for the education of those intended for diplomatic offices and for high situations under government; but Henry's prodigality rendered all such schemes abortive. Instead of sixteen, as had been proposed, he was only able to create six new bishoprics. The immense property he had acquired was soon wasted, and in a short time the crown became as necessitous as ever, and again dependent on Parliament for support.

The suppression of the monasteries, instead of proving as was expected a means of reducing the taxes, generated one of the heaviest burthens to which the country is at present subject. These monasteries were the great asylum and the only support of the indigent. To prevent their being cast upon the public, large quantities of church lands had been sold at easy rates, that the purchasers might be enabled to keep up the hospitality formerly practised; and to enforce this duty, a penalty of £6. 13s. 4d. per month was imposed on such as failed in the obligation. This measure appears to have failed, as might naturally be expected, since it appears that an attempt was made in the year 1536 to lay this burthen on the secular clergy; the incumbent of every parish being ordered to set apart a considerable portion of his revenue for repairing the church and supporting the poor. This plan appears also to have been rendered abortive. It is not known how long it was in force; but it is certain that, after many other ineffectual endeavours, it was at last thought necessary to compel the parish where the poor were born to provide for their support.

In the reign of this eccentric monarch, a general survey was made of the kingdom,—of the number of inhabitants,—their age,—professions,—wealth, income, and

every other important particular, with which a statesman could wish to be acquainted ; but unfortunately this very important document is lost, and all that is known at present is, that the income of the kingdom was estimated at £4,000,000 per annum. Henry's reign extended to 37 years, 9 months, and 6 days.

EDWARD VI.

Edward the VI. succeeded to the crown on the death of his father, on the 28th January 1547, being then only in the 9th year of his age. During the greater part of his reign, which lasted only six years and a half, his maternal uncle Seymour, duke of Somerset, governed the kingdom under the name of protector. As this young prince had given early presages of a disposition to good government, his premature death was justly considered as a great public loss.

The protector having engaged in wars with France and Scotland, and the revenues of the crown being greatly impaired by Henry's prodigality, parliament, in addition to tonnage and poundage, granted several subsidies. In this reign, a poll tax of 1½d, 2d, and 3d, was laid upon sheep ; but it was found so oppressive and difficult to collect, that it was repealed the next year. A duty on cloth of 8d per pound was also imposed the same year, but this too was found so unpopular that it was in like manner repealed.

In this reign the suspended annuity or tribute from the crown of France, which originated in the reign of Edward IV, the arrears of which amounted to 2,000,000 of crowns, was again demanded of Henry II. of France, but absolutely refused, declaring at the same time that he would not be tributary to any other Sovereign. In a subsequent treaty with that monarch no notice is taken of this claim, from which it has been presumed to be virtually abandoned.

In 1550, the town of Boulogne, (the only one in France which Henry VIII. had conquered in a war which cost £1,340,000) was sold to France with its territories for 400,000 crowns, equal to £1,333,333 6s. 8d. sterling.

During the short reign of this Prince, an alteration of great consequence took place in the revenue of the customs. A body of foreign merchants, called the corporation of the steel yards, had, in the reign of Henry III, obtained very valuable privileges by patents from the crown, among others they were exempted from several duties paid by other aliens ; and while they thus enjoyed all the advantages of natives, their connections with the continent afforded them the greatest facilities in disposing of the merchandize in foreign markets. Edward's ministers abolished these privileges, and put this corporation on the footing of other aliens, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the principal trading cities in Europe ; which encouraged the natives to engage with more eagerness in commercial pursuits, and with more success to themselves and advantage to their country than formerly. The loose government, which usually takes place during a minority, was strongly exemplified in this short reign.

The rapacity of Edward's ministers knew no limits. His revenues, and a great part of the property taken from the Church, were appropriated to private purposes, and some of the chief officers of state were guilty of the grossest corruption. In order to supply the deficiencies, occasioned by a conduct so criminal and reprehensible, money is said to have been borrowed at Antwerp, and other cities in Flanders, and Brabant, at the enormous interest of 14 per cent per annum. On the premature death of this young monarch, the malversation in his government involved him in a debt amounting to £240,000. Edward's reign extended only to 6 years, 5 months, and 8 days.

MARY.

Mary, the sister of Edward, and consort to Philip II, King of Spain, succeeded to the Crown, on the 6th July, 1553. Her reign, happily for the country, was of short duration; since it produced nothing but misery to her subjects at home, and disgrace to the nation abroad.

Her Parliament, humble and submissive to her wishes, granted her the tonnage and poundage duties for her life; and she is said to have received in the whole of other grants five fifteenths, and three subsidies.

In 1558, an act passed, most injurious to the landed property of the crown, which was perpetually suffering some diminution:—it confirmed all grants of crown lands, which had been made by the Queen, or should be made during seven years posterior.

The principles, upon which Mary acted in ecclesiastical matters, rendered her government so extremely obnoxious, that ultimately her application for a subsidy was rejected on the ground that it was in vain to bestow riches on a monarch, whose revenues were thus wasted. She, therefore, had recourse to tyrannical exactions to replenish her Exchequer. In 1555, by means of embargoes, compulsive loans, and exactions of a similar nature, she raised about £240,000; and, in two years afterwards, contrived to fit out an armament by the same methods for the assistance of her husband Philip, and with a view to supply it with provisions, she forcibly siezed on all the grain the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk could furnish without making any recompence. Her infatuation for the person and principles of Philip was so great, notwithstanding his indifference and contempt of her, that she not only tarnished her own character by the most disgraceful rapacity, but sacrificed the interests of her crown and kingdom in order to promote her views of aggrandisement. Her reign terminated after the lapse of 5 years, 4 months, and 11 days.

ELIZABETH.

Elizabeth, the sister of Mary, half-blood, ascended the throne of England, on the 17th November, 1558. During a long reign, although not without some blemishes, she

made herself respected among foreign nations, and contributed much to the general happiness of her subjects at home. She was subjected to heavier charges in providing for the national protection than any of her predecessors. Her successful enterprises against Spain, from the year 1589 to 1593, is said to have cost £1,200,000.

The revenue of Ireland was reduced to £6000, while it required £20,000 a year from the English Exchequer to defray the ordinary charges of the Peace Establishment. The rebellion, which broke out in that country, instigated by Tyrone, lasted eight years, and cost £400,000 a year. In 1599, £600,000 were expended there in six months, and, according to Sir Robert Cecil, Ireland in ten years had cost England the sum of £3,400,000.

Elizabeth's finances were also much impaired, in the early part of her reign, from the efforts she made to enable the Dutch to throw off the yoke of Spain. She also assisted Henry the IV. of France with a loan of £450,000 in his greatest necessities, for which she was to receive 14 per cent. interest; but he forgot his engagements in the days of his prosperity, when Elizabeth in her turn was suffering pecuniary distress in consequence of the war in Ireland, since from her earnest and repeated applications neither principal nor interest was paid, although Henry had amassed considerable treasures towards the end of his reign.

The Sovereigns of the House of Tudor, as has been already stated, involved themselves in considerable debts, which Elizabeth felt it incumbent on her to discharge. Some of her father and sister's debts remained unpaid, besides a debt of £240,000 due by her brother King Edward. These, and all other debts of the crown, she is said to have paid, to the amount of £4,000,000, though a great English historian* thinks there must be some mistake as to the amount.

It was reserved for Elizabeth to recover the credit of the nation, by restoring the coin of the kingdom (which had been debased in the reigns of Henry and Edward) to a proper standard; to complete this object, however, the queen was obliged to borrow £200,000 from the city of Antwerp.

In the 43d year of her reign, she was prevailed on to divide the pound of silver into sixty two shillings, instead of sixty the former standard, and even to consent to a coinage of base money for Ireland, contrary to the opinion of Burleigh, and some others of her wisest counsellors. Since this reign, no Sovereign of England has attempted to debase the current coin of the kingdom.

The last considerable expence on the Exchequer of Elizabeth was her bounty to her favourites. Her gifts to the Earl of Leicester were very considerable, while at one time she presented to the Earl of Essex the enormous sum of £30,000, which, including other gifts and a lucrative monopoly which he enjoyed, are estimated upon the whole at £300,000. But although liberal to these favourites, she was penurious to those able ministers who contributed so much to the glory of her reign; some of

* Hume.

them are said to have died in poverty, while Burleigh's fortune was more owing to his own frugality than to the bounty of the Queen.

In supporting the splendour of the court, Elizabeth's vanity subjected her to great expence. She is said to have left above 3000 suits of various shapes and colours in her wardrobe, at the time of her death. Excepting in this respect and her liberality to her favourites, the other expences of her reign were not considerable.

The income derived from the royal domains, during the reign of Elizabeth, has not been ascertained; but they have been supposed to amount to about £96,000 a year when the existing leases expired, although to her successor, James, they only yielded £32,000.

In the 42d year of her reign, in order to procure money to suppress the rebellion in Ireland, rather than apply to parliament the Queen confirmed the crown lands to such as held them by titles liable to be controverted:—She preferred making continual dilapidations on the royal domains, rather than apply to her parliament for moderate supplies; and hence, the great reduction of their value at present*; and in the succeeding year, all these grants were confirmed by parliament.

Elizabeth was strongly attached to what she supposed to be the inherent rights of the crown. It is said, that the income arising from wardship (which with other claims of a similar nature were rigorously enforced) joined to the Duchy of Lancaster yielded £120,000 a year. Of all the feudal prerogatives that of purveyance was the most obnoxious. The Queen at first had victualled her navy under pretence of that right; but in order to remove the unpopularity of the measure, she afterwards revoked all her warrants, and ordered payment to be made for the provisions which had been furnished.

The customs had gradually become an important part of the revenues of the crown. In the year 1590, they were raised from £24,000 to £50,000 a year. And the tonnage and poundage duties were granted to Elizabeth for life. One of the first measures of her parliament was to restore the first fruits and tenths, which her predecessor Mary had given up, also the lands she had bestowed on religious houses.

In the 12th year of Elizabeth's reign, the revenue of the crown, including the Duchy of Lancaster, was estimated at £308,197. In the year 1590, a considerable addition was made to the customs; and it is probable, that the whole of her permanent income might extend to about £350,000.

During the reign of Elizabeth it appears, that there were only granted by parliament, at the intervals of 3, 4, and 5 years, 19 subsidies and 38 fifteenths, exclusive

* William the I, possessed 68 forests, 13 chases, and 781 parks in different parts of England; but whatever may have been the value or extent of the landed property of the crown, and however great the accessions were it might receive, though the strictest laws were made to prevent its alienation and to check encroachments, yet the royal Domains of England have shared the same fate with those of other countries. Hardly a vestige now remains of the immense property of the conqueror.

of 18 subsidies from the clergy. Every subsidy amounted to about £70,000, and a fifteenth yielded £29,000. Eighteen subsidies were granted by the clergy, valued at £20,000 each, making the following aggregate—

19 Subsidies granted by parliament	£1,330,000
38 Fifteenths	1,109,000
18 Subsidies from the clergy	360,000

Total Grants to Elizabeth (exclusive of her hereditary revenues)	} £2,793,000
during the whole of her long reign of 45 years, averaging	
about £62,200 a year	

Elizabeth's resources, however, did not depend entirely either on the hereditary revenue or the occasional aids of the clergy and parliament. At that time the crown claimed the privilege of granting monopolies to traders, which probably yielded considerable sums; since the number and importance of the articles thus monopolized are incredible. They comprised almost every valuable article of commerce. The abuse of power in this respect was excessive. A single patent, contrived for the advantage of four rapacious courtiers, occasioned the utter ruin of seven or eight thousand industrious subjects. This was among the greatest blots in Elizabeth's reign. In vain did parliament interfere. The haughty Sovereign would not permit her prerogative to be called in question, which, in a speech from the throne, she called *the chief flower in her garden* and the principal and head point in her *crown and diadem*.

Not long after, however, the Queen issued a proclamation for repealing some of the most obnoxious monopolies, particularly on salt, oil, starch, &c. for which she received the solemn thanks of her commons.

Nor was Elizabeth totally exempt from those extortions, which became such a deformity in the character of her predecessors. She is said to have exacted on the first day of every new year 60,000 crowns in gifts from her dependents, and to have raised 100,000 crowns annually by granting licences to Roman catholics and non-conformists, exempting them from the penalties, which the law inflicted on such as neglected to attend the public service of the established church. She also used her prerogative in laying an embargo on merchandize, if not to extort money like her predecessor Mary, at least to procure the commodities she wanted at an easy rate.

The power of the crown during the reigns of the House of Tudor was little short of absolute dominion. Elizabeth continued the practice of extorting loans from her subjects, and even of imprisoning such as refused; and on every occasion where they were repaid, it was without interest, although after the lapse of several years.

Taking together all the direct and collateral as well as incidental sources of revenue, which Elizabeth ultimately possessed, it is supposed by the best authorities to have amounted to about half a million sterling a year.

Of the specie coined during this reign a particular account is extant, making the whole £5,513,717. 11s. 1½d. in silver, and only £795,138 8s. 4½d. in gold. This, however, includes £85,646. 19s. 5½d. employed in fabricating the base money issued for the use of Ireland.

In the 43d year of this reign, the previous laws, which had been enacted respecting the poor, were consolidated, improved, and rendered permanent, and have continued ever since with some exceptions to regulate this important branch of police. Before this time, the situation of the poor is represented to have been most deplorable; and even after a legal title to relief was established, the assessments were so low, that many are said to have perished for want.

The Queen, at her death, left debts unpaid to the amount of £400,000, which were paid by her successor. She left at the same time claims, which greatly exceeded this sum. The King of France owed her £400,000,—the States of Holland £800,000, (a considerable part of which was paid) and, besides this, the subsidies due to her when she died amounted to about £350,000, which King James received soon after his accession.

The different modes of raising money under the government of the House of Tudor have been explained. During this æra some small progress was made in finance. The advantages of public credit, and a strict adherence to public faith, were discovered by the sagacious ministers of Elizabeth; and the customs and other branches of the revenue were rendered more productive.

It is singular, that from the public measures of the sovereigns of the House of Tudor, of all others the most tenacious of prerogative, and strongly disposed to exercise absolute dominion, and from their dilapidations of the hereditary revenues and the pillage of the property of the church, we are indebted for the liberties which have ultimately placed this nation in so high a pinnacle of power.

In proportion as the property of the crown was diminished, the dependence of the sovereign on the people became more obvious. The affairs of government could not be carried on without money, which could only be furnished by parliament. Hence the redress of many abuses, which, under a sovereign possessing large hereditary revenues, collected independently of parliament, followed in succession, until the rights of the people were ultimately established at the revolution. Elizabeth's reign extended to 44 years, 4 months, and 7 days.

Estimate of the public revenue during the reigns of the Princes of the
HOUSE OF TUDOR.

					£
At the commencement of the reign of Henry VII.	22 August	1485	.	400,000	
Idem Idem . . . Henry VIII.	22 April	1509	.	800,000	
Idem Idem . . . Edward VI.	28 January	1547	.	400,000	
Idem Idem . . . Mary . . .	6 July	1553	.	450,000	
Idem Idem . . . Elizabeth	17 November	1558	.	500,000	

JAMES I.

James VI. of Scotland and I. of England ascended the throne on the 24th March, 1602. The imbecility of his character, and the obstinacy of his successors, disappointed, for nearly a century, those hopes, which had been entertained respecting the advantages expected from an union of the two crowns.

Had this monarch acted with vigour and prudence, and had his posterity avoided the rocks of despotism and tyranny on which they split, Great Britain might have reached its full maturity at a much earlier period.

It was reasonable to suppose from the slender revenue allotted to James in Scotland, that he would have manifested a disposition to frugality when he succeeded to the English throne. But his conduct disappointed all these expectations. Careful, indeed, to avoid wars, his profusion was confined to expences of a personal nature; and they uniformly exceeded his income. In the year 1610 they amounted to £81,000, although in 1617 they were reduced to £36,617 a year; and although, as far as respected himself, this monarch is said not to be addicted to luxurious expences; yet he kept up three courts,—one for himself, another for his queen, and a third for his son. The king of Denmark, brother to the queen, twice visited England, by which a considerable expence was incurred.

The charges attending the marriage of the king's daughter to the Elector Palatine, including the portion of that princess, cost £93,278,—a much larger sum than had been expended by any of his predecessors on a similar occasion.

This monarch was not contented with giving his numerous favourites the most lucrative employments of the state, and considerable grants from the royal domains; but he lavished upon them gifts of money to a large amount. In the first fourteen years of his reign £424,469 were thus expended. He bestowed upon his eldest son Henry, Prince of Wales, a clear revenue of £51,415, equal to more than £150,000 of the money of this period.

During this reign, as well as the last, Ireland continued to be a heavy load on the English exchequer. At one time an army of 19,000 men was kept up in that country; and money was also remitted in consequence of the low state of the Irish treasury.

The king's son-in-law, the Elector Palatine, relying on the powerful assistance of England, attempted to annex to his territories the kingdom of Bohemia; but proving unsuccessful, and ultimately driven from his patrimonial possessions, the English nation was subjected to great expence, which was considerably augmented by the unsuccessful war which the misfortunes of that prince urged him to carry on.

In the reign of Elizabeth, the expences of her fleet averaged about £30,000 a year. James was at first particularly attentive to his fleet, and expended about

£50,000 a year, exclusive of the timber in the royal forests, amounting to about £36,000 more; but he afterwards reduced this expence to the extent of £25,000 a year.

RESOURCES OF THE STATE.

Although every reign, since the Norman conquest, has produced a certain diminution of the landed property of the crown, yet the value of what remained was very considerable. At the accession of James, the nominal rent amounted only to £32,000 per annum; but it was worth much more, and afterwards yielded about £80,000.

In this reign, a bill passed the lords for the purpose of strictly entailing the crown lands, but it was rejected by the commons; and James, finding no obstruction to the sale of these lands, followed the example of his predecessors, and obtained, by that means, the then enormous sum of £725,000.

The rights, which the kings of England enjoyed as Lord Paramount, still remained a badge of feudal slavery. Purveyance, in particular, was carried to such a height, that the officers of the crown compelled the people to receive for their commodities whatever price they chose to set upon them; while all the feudal prerogatives had become so intolerable, that parliament proposed to settle an independent revenue on the crown in their stead;—and an agreement, at the rate of £200,000 a year, was only frustrated by disputes in other matters, which arose between the king and his parliament.

This reign furnishes the last example in English history of any aid being levied on knighting the king's eldest son, and the marriage of his eldest daughter. Henry, Prince of Wales, being a favourite of the people, the business was managed with great address and moderation, and it yielded a considerable sum. The tax on the marriage of the Princess Elizabeth to the Elector Palatine produced £20,500. This species of exaction had lain dormant since the reign of Henry VII., whose eldest daughter, Margaret, married James IV. of Scotland, in consequence of which alliance James himself now inherited the crown of England. The alliance of his daughter Elizabeth with the Elector Palatine also seated the present illustrious family of Hanover on the throne.

The first parliament, assembled by king James, granted him, according to former usage, the duties of tonnage and poundage for life. James, following the example of Mary and Elizabeth, wished to have this revenue (which began to be very productive) to be considered as a permanent revenue of the crown; and upon this subject great disputes arose, which were warmly contested on both sides. The king wished to increase the revenue independent of parliament, according to the power exercised by Mary and Elizabeth, who had altered the rates on some particular commodities; and did actually put it in practice, and attempted to carry it to a considerable height, though he was at first cautious not to give umbrage by any important alteration. But

the commons became greatly alarmed, and actually passed a bill, abolishing these additional impositions, which was, however, rejected by the lords. The next parliament was proceeding to renew the bill, when it was suddenly dissolved; and nothing further was done during the reign of this sovereign.

When James succeeded to the throne the customs yielded only £127,000 a year.

		£	s.	d.
In the year 1613, the revenue of the customs in the port of London	Outwards, amounted to	£61,322	16	7
	Inwards	48,150	1	9
		—109,572 18 4		
In all the out-ports the revenue of the customs	Outwards	25,471	19	7
	Inwards	13,030	9	9
		—38,502 9 4		
		Total	£148,075	7 8

Towards the close of this reign the aggregate amount was about £190,000.

The grants, which James received from parliament (in addition to the customs) during the whole course of his reign, were as follows—

1606	.	3rd year of his reign	3	Subsidies and 6 fifteenths.
1610	.	7th	Idem	1 Idem 1 Idem
1621	.	18th	Idem	2 Idem 0 Idem
1624	.	22nd	Idem	3 Idem 3 Idem
			9	10

It appears that a subsidy produced about £70,000, and a fifteenth about £36,560, which made the whole parliamentary grants amount to about £1,000,000, to which are to be added about twelve subsidies from the clergy, which, at £20,000 each, would produce £240,000. It is supposed that, taking one year with another, king James received by parliamentary and clerical grants about £60,000 per annum, during the whole course of his reign.

This monarch created a revenue by the sale of titles of nobility. Upon each rank and degree he fixed his price, on the payment of which the grant was made out. The dignities of Baron, Viscount, and Earl might be purchased at the rate of from 10 to £15,000 and £20,000.

In this reign also the hereditary dignity of Baronet at first originated, and was carried into execution in 1611. The price fixed was £1,095. Ninety-three were created, the sale of whose patents yielded £98,550.

As early as 1604, James resorted to the dangerous expedient of compelling his subjects to lend him money under the security of the privy seal; but it is not certain how much he obtained, or whether any part was repaid; but £200,000 were afterwards extorted, and on the same pretence, which justly offended the commons, who petitioned that no man should be forced to lend money, or give a reason why he would not,—it, however, had no effect.

In 1613, this monarch exacted to the amount of £52,000 under the name of *benevolence*, which was dearly purchased at the expence of the odium and unpopularity which it generated.

In consequence of a treaty, which James concluded with Holland, he received £400,000 from the Dutch of the debt due to queen Elizabeth, and also £60,000 of the debt which Henry IV. of France owed to that princess. In 1608, the Dutch were compelled to pay a fine for the liberty of fishing on the British coasts, the amount of which is uncertain.

The last source of the revenues of king James arose from the heavy fines which it was customary to inflict. Forty thousand pounds were imposed on the Earl of Northumberland and the lords Mordaunt and Stourton, who were suspected of having some knowledge of the famous gunpowder plot, and of concealing it from the king's ministers. Sir John Bonnet, Judge of the Prerogative Court, was fined £20,000. The celebrated chancellor Bacon was sentenced to pay £40,000, which, however, was remitted. The Earl of Suffolk, Lord High Treasurer, was fined £30,000 by the Court of the Star Chamber, and the Earl of Middlesex, in consequence of a parliamentary impeachment, was condemned to pay £50,000. If these fines had been all exacted, they would have yielded £184,000, and would have made a considerable addition to the then impoverished exchequer.

It appears that the ordinary revenue, during the first fourteen years of this reign, did not exceed £450,853, and that the extraordinary sums the king had received during the same period may be estimated at about £2,200,000; and that his ordinary expences exceeded his income £36,617 a year.

The income of this monarch from all the different sources may be estimated at the annual sum of £600,000, although his permanent revenue, including the grants of parliament, probably did not much exceed £500,000. This sum was amply sufficient, in those days, to defray the charges of the English government under a frugal monarch in peaceful times, though by no means equal to the style of splendour in which James wished to live.

The first lottery ever known in England, drawn under public authority, was in this reign. The profits arising from it were principally appropriated to defray the expences of an English colony in America.

During this reign, about £3,666,000 of gold and £1,765,000 of silver were coined at the king's mint; but it still continued to be the practice to issue some base money for the use of Ireland.

The inglorious reign of this monarch terminated without exalting his own character as a sovereign, or raising that of his people in the estimation of Europe.

CHARLES I.

Charles I., his son and successor, possessed qualities of a more elevated character than those which distinguished his father; but he was misled by his advisers, and was betrayed into great acts of indiscretion, producing not a few instances of the abuse of

power manifested by acts incompatible with the principles of a limited government. The impolitic wars of this monarch with Spain, Austria, and France, were too extensive for the means he possessed; and the result was, that all his expeditions were unsuccessful, and terminated ingloriously by separate treaties in 1629 and 1630.

For about ten years after this period, Charles governed his dominions in peace, and managed his own revenues with the sums he exacted from his subjects with such rigid economy, that he not only paid off the debts contracted during the Spanish and French wars, but continued to amass a treasure to the amount of £200,000.

About this time Charles, impelled perhaps by a deference to his clergy, became anxious to establish the same form of church government and the same liturgy in Scotland, which prevailed in England. To the pecuniary embarrassments, which his perseverance in this measure occasioned, may be attributed all his subsequent misfortunes.

The Scots, strongly attached to the doctrines and discipline of Calvin, resisted his interference as a stretch of power; but no opposition or obstacle could alter the king's resolution, and although moderate concessions at first would have appeased the tumults in Scotland, yet they came too late:—the result was, that the king put himself twice at the head of formidable armies for the reduction of his Scotch subjects, but without success.

The expence attending these ill judged hostilities reduced Charles to great distress, so as to render it necessary again to have recourse to parliament; while this derangement of his finances enabled the commons to extort concessions from him, which enabled them to trample on the crown, and emboldened the army they had raised to destroy both the king and the constitution.

Charles, notwithstanding his affectation of frugality, exhibited much of the state and splendour of a king. He kept up twenty-four palaces, all so completely furnished, that in removing from one to another he found every thing he wanted. His collection of pictures was the most splendid and valuable in Europe, and he spared no expence to rival every other monarch, and even Philip of Spain, then the master of the Indies.

The income of this monarch first consisted of the revenues arising from the crown lands, which was supposed to have become more productive than during the preceding reign. After the example of Elizabeth, strict enquiry was made into the titles of estates, which originally made a part of the royal domains; and some money was obtained by compounding with those whose patents were defective. Charles was obliged to borrow £300,000 on the security of his dominions to enable him to carry on the war in Scotland.

The first parliament which Charles assembled voted two subsidies (which, like the former, were taxes on income) from his protestant, and four from his catholic subjects, which together have been estimated at £112,000. The second parliament voted four subsidies and three fifteenths; but it was hastily dissolved before the vote passed. The

third parliament voted five subsidies, in consideration of which the famous Petition of Right received the Royal Assent. This grant did not exceed £250,000*. These, amounting to seven subsidies, and producing about £372,000, were the only grants which Charles received from his commons prior to the meeting of the long parliament, by whom six subsidies and a poll tax were voted before the commencement of the civil war; but the produce was appropriated to pay the English and Scotch armies, and the money was given to commissioners appointed by parliament, and not to the treasury.

Notwithstanding the great diminution of the property of the church, the assistance which Charles obtained from the clergy was considerable. Besides the voluntary contributions, he received, in the earlier part of his reign, eight subsidies, amounting together to £160,000, and it should seem another subsidy was granted in 1641.

On the rupture of the negociation for a marriage with the Infanta of Spain, with whom a dowry of £600,000 was to have been given, a marriage took place between Charles and Henrietta, the daughter of the celebrated Henry the Great of France, with whom he received a very inferior portion, amounting only to £400,000 crowns, which, however, came very opportunely to the assistance of Charles in the midst of the greatest pecuniary distresses. The king, availing himself of the superiority of his naval equipments, to which he devoted much attention, obliged the Dutch to pay £30,000 for the liberty of fishing on the British coast; and had not his attention been otherwise occupied, in consequence of the troubles which were beginning to burst upon the country, he would have exacted an annual tribute for this privilege. Charles continued to levy the duties of tonnage and poundage without the sanction of parliament, which had been usual at the commencement of preceding reigns, although it was admitted similar irregularities had taken place in former reigns.

The king, not satisfied with exacting impositions, which though in some degree sanctioned by custom, yet were considered as illegal, was so ill advised as to attempt to levy a new tax in the name of ship money, to which the nation was not accustomed. He sheltered himself under the precedent of a species of ship money imposed by Elizabeth in 1558; but it is here to be observed, that it was ships, and not money, which Elizabeth exacted. The first attempt was made in 1626, adhering pretty close to the system of Elizabeth, whose arbitrary reign was considered as no justification. This, however, did not operate as a check on the king's pretensions. The rapid increase of the maritime power of the Dutch republic, and the audacity of the Barbary Corsairs, who infested the very coasts of the kingdom, rendered it necessary to augment the naval strength of the kingdom. In this emergency Charles consulted Noy, his Attorney General, a very

* When Secretary Cook informed the king of the sum that was voted, he expressed an anxiety to know by what majority? "By one," the secretary replied. This answer appeared to disturb the king much. Upon which the secretary added, "Your Majesty has no cause to be alarmed, for the house was so unanimous in making the grant, that it seemed to have but one voice!!" It is said, that on receiving this information, and being set right, tears of affection started from the king's eyes.

able lawyer, and, ultimately, the twelve Judges, whose opinions all seemed to favour the king's prerogative, with this difference, that the king had a right to call for ships, men, and victuals in kind, but are silent as to money.

In opposition to these opinions, John Hampden, an English gentleman, who professed great patriotism and courage, refused to pay the inconsiderable sum of twenty shillings, which was levied upon him. A suit was instituted, and, after many arguments, four of the judges decided in his favour and eight against him. This decision roused the indignation of the people, and produced a firm and steady opposition to the measures of the king, and was a prelude to the troubles and misfortunes which afterwards ensued.

Ship money was raised during the space of four years. It was supposed to have produced about £200,000 a year; consequently, it must have yielded in the whole about £800,000.

Charles had proposed to his fourth parliament, in consideration of twelve subsidies, to abolish ship money; but the commons refused to give any countenance to what they considered a stretch of arbitrary power, and consequently an illegal imposition, and a vote to this effect passed in the long parliament. The sentence against Mr. Hampden was also declared to be contrary to law. The eight Judges, whose opinion was in favour of the exaction, were impeached; the collecting officers were declared highly culpable, and a law passed by which this obnoxious impost was for ever abolished.

An attempt was made, during this monarch's reign, not only to maintain a fleet, but also to levy and support an army without the sanction of parliament. Every county in England was ordered to raise a certain number of horse and foot, and to furnish a specific number of carriages, at their own expence, to be employed in the war against Scotland. These military operations were carried on through the medium of the Lord Lieutenants of counties, and their conduct was justified by ancient precedents in times of danger and invasion; but it was voted by the long parliament to be illegal, as no express statute could be produced in support of it.

Charles, not satisfied with lucrative privileges which admitted of no dispute, rashly attempted to raise money by granting patents for monopolies, contrary to an act passed in 1624, by which he is said to have raised £200,000, although scarcely £1500 came into his exchequer. The long parliament annulled all these patents, and declared them to be illegal.

The king's necessities were such, that he resorted to every expedient practised by his predecessors to raise money by the royal authority, among others he pursued the ancient practice of exacting compulsive loans from his subjects; and, as early as the second year of his reign, letters under the privy seal were sent to the wealthiest persons in the kingdom, demanding the loan of sums of money in proportion to their ability,—to be repaid in eighteen months. About £200,000 was raised by this obnoxious expedient. In the year 1626, the loan of £100,000 was demanded from the city of London, and refused.

Four subsidies and three fifteenths had been voted by the second parliament assembled by the king, but its sudden dissolution prevented the grant from passing into a law. Charles, however, without calling a new parliament, proceeded to levy the money under the denomination of a loan; and the most violent and arbitrary measures were adopted to compel payment. Such as refused compliance were imprisoned. Soldiers were illegally quartered on them, and by various other oppressions they were made sensible of the king's resentment. Charles attempted to raise money by commission, independently of parliament, but the House of Commons annulled the commission; yet this disappointment did not prevent the king from resorting to other arbitrary measures to extort money from his subjects.

Large fees were annexed to newly invented offices. Every county was compelled to maintain a muster master, appointed by the crown, for exercising the militia. Vintners were driven, by the terror of fines, to submit to an illegal imposition on all the wine they retailed. An ancient duty for furnishing the soldiery with coal and conduct money was revived. Heavy fines were imposed in the Star Chamber and High Commission Courts. Sir David Fowles was fined £5000 for dissuading a friend from compounding with the commissioners of knighthood. Thirty thousand pounds were exacted from those who trespassed on an obsolete law against converting arable lands into pasture. Encroachments on the king's forests were punished in a similar manner. Proclamations were issued, commanding the nobility and gentry to retire to their country seats, *and not to spend their time idly in London*. Those who transgressed were severely mulcted by the court of the Star Chamber. It was even contended, that the proclamations of the king were of equal authority with the laws; and those who disobeyed them were heavily fined, and in some instances condemned to the pillory. It is scarcely possible, that more tyrannical steps could have been taken by the greatest despot.

The unfortunate and ill advised Charles was resolved to revive every arbitrary act of his predecessors, by which a revenue could be derived; and it is said that, by compounding with some, and fining others who refused to appear, about £100,000 was exacted.

It appears that the revenue of this monarch, from 1637 to 1641 inclusive, amounted *communibus annis* to £895,819 0s. 5d., of which £210,493 17s. 4d. arose from ship money and other illegal exactions. It was, upon the whole, fully adequate to the ordinary expences of the crown, although unequal to the charges of war and other unnecessary expences.

During the reign of this monarch, £12,096,220 sterling were coined in gold and silver;—a strong proof of the rapidity by which the wealth and commerce of the nation increased, since it amounted to more than the united reigns of Elizabeth and James.

This reign is distinguished by a law, the object of which was to procure a full confirmation of the most important privileges of the nation, among which it was

enacted, *that no gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or such like charge shall be exacted without common consent by act of Parliament!*

If the unfortunate Charles was so ill advised as to exercise a power beyond what the constitution authorised, he at the same time made considerable concessions. The fatal catastrophe, which prematurely terminated his life, is well known. In spite of all his errors, he possessed many amiable qualities; but he reigned at an æra when a spirit of turbulence and fanaticism pervaded the country. His education was ill suited to such a period; and he was surrounded by bad counsellors, and urged to unconstitutional acts by the difficulties he experienced in obtaining supplies from his Parliament, without making concessions, which he considered as trenching on the royal prerogative exercised by his predecessors.

LONG PARLIAMENT.

The death of Charles introduced a new æra—the total destruction of the monarchy for a time. When the long Parliament assembled, the bloody and destructive disturbances, which afterwards took place, had not been anticipated. It proceeded therefore to levy money conformably to ancient usage; and, instead of assessments and other modes of exaction afterwards practised, six subsidies, and a poll tax equal to as many more, were granted for disbanding the English and Scotch armies when civil war raged in the bowels of the kingdom. It was presently discovered, that the disputes between the Crown and Parliament were likely to lead to fatal extremities. And at the commencement of the civil war, which soon after took place, the conduct of the Parliament was held in such high estimation by the people, that incredible sums were raised by voluntary contribution. Even the plate and jewels of almost every inhabitant of London were brought forward to be coined for the support of the war against the King, and the malignants, as they were then called. But it was not to be expected, that a war of such expence could be long supported on so slender a foundation as the temporary favour of the people.

The Parliament therefore resolved to levy assessments on landed and personal property. These imposts varied, according to the exigencies of the times, from 35 to £120,000 a month. They were found not only so productive, but in every respect so superior to the ancient mode of assessment, that under the denomination of a *land tax*, they have since formed a very considerable branch of the modern public revenue.

These were however insufficient, which produced a singular impost, suited to the spirit of the times. It was enacted by Parliament, that every person should retrench one meal a week, and to pay the money thereby saved into the public treasury. This whimsical tax produced £608,400 in six years, during which it continued.

The excise laws first originated with the long Parliament. They were first extended to liquors, to be positively abolished after the war; they were afterwards

extended to *bread, meat, salt*, and many other necessary articles. That on bread and meat was afterwards repealed.

During this period, additions were made to the revenue of customs by duties on coals and currants. Four shillings a chaldron, levied on coals at Newcastle, produced above £50,000. Notwithstanding the civil wars, the customs and excise had become so productive, that in the year 1657 Cromwell was offered £1,100,000 a year for a lease of both these branches of revenue.

It was principally owing to the long Parliament, that the post office was first put on a footing to yield a permanent revenue instead of an annual expence of £7000. By judicious regulations it was made to yield £10,000 a year, besides paying all expences.

When the long Parliament assumed the whole government of the country, they appropriated to their own purposes all the feudal prerogatives; and although they had always been considered as inseparably annexed to the crown, they were rigorously exacted. Purveyance (an useless privilege for a republic) was alone given up.

A tax on licenses, to keep inns and public houses, were also a part of the ways and means of the long Parliament; but the most popular of all the modes adopted for raising money was the sequestration of the income of certain lucrative offices, and applying the produce to the public service. It is not known, what particular offices were thus appropriated; but it appears, that in the space of fifteen years they yielded £850,000, equal to £56,666 a year.

Apparently desirous of abolishing every vestige of monarchy, the Parliament disposed of all the crown lands and the estates belonging to the Principality of Wales, at the rate of ten years purchase. Even the houses, furniture, and personal effects of the King were sold much under their value, in the hopes probably, that the monarchy would never be re-established; but the restoration afterwards of Charles II. made these bargains dearer than was expected.

The attachment of the bishops and clergy to the unfortunate monarch drew upon them the indignation of the opposite party. Not only the lands of the bishops, and of the deans and chapters, but even the rectories and glebe lands were sold, some at ten, and others at twelve years purchase. The tithes were also sequestrated for the use of the state. And instead of a settled clergy, some wild enthusiasts and fanatics were proposed to supply their places, as itinerant preachers and lecturers, wandering about the country as in the times of the primitive christians; being confined to individuals whose salaries would be of small amount, and little burthensome to the exchequer.

It is said that, under colour of *malignancy*, about one half of the personal and landed property of the kingdom was sequestrated, and either sold at low prices to those who were in power, or heavy compositions were demanded, if restored to the original

owners. Compulsive loans were also exacted from *heart malignants*, or persons suspected of secretly favouring the royal cause. Indeed, the miserable individuals thus suspected were compelled to furnish such sums of money, by way of loan, as were often attended with utter ruin to themselves and families.

Under so tyrannical and military a government a variety of oppressive exactions must necessarily take place. The inhabitants were compelled to give free quarters to the soldiers, and to feed and lodge them at their own expence. And although guilty of the most shocking abuses, their offences were only cognizable by their own officers,—no civil court or magistrate daring to interfere.

CROMWELL.

When Cromwell assumed the government, the system of oppression became general. The kingdom was divided into twelve districts, under an officer called a major general, with power to levy any tax the Protector thought proper to impose. An edict was issued, commanding the exaction of the tenth penny from all the royal party, which was rigorously enforced. The whole country was exposed to their extortions; hardly any distinction was made, nor were even the firmest friends of the existing odious government always exempted.

The regular permanent income of England, during the administration of Cromwell, was about £1,517,274. 17s. 1d. Scotland, then subject to the same government, yielded £143,652. 11s. 11d.,—and Ireland £207,790, making in the whole £1,868,719. 0s. 9d.

But if all the exactions, which were extorted from the people at that time, were accumulated, they would amount to a sum almost incredible. It is asserted in a Treatise published in 1647,—That in four years £17,512,400, or about £4,378,100 per annum were raised.

During Nineteen Years, namely from 3d November, 1640, to the 5th November, 1659, the following Sums are said to have been extorted and raised in England.

Six subsidies at £50,000 each	£300,000
Poll money and assessments to disband the Scotch and English armies	800,000
Voluntary contributions to support the good cause against the malignants	300,000
Voluntary contributions for the relief of Irish Protestants	180,000
Land tax, or various assessments for the maintenance of the army	32,172,321
Excise for 16 years,—£500,000 per annum	8,000,000
Tonnage and poundage for 19 years, at £400,000 a year	7,600,000
Duty on coals	850,000
Duty on currants	51,000
Postage of letters	301,000
Carried over.	<u>£50,554,321</u>

	Brought forward.	£50,554,321
Weekly meal for six years		608,400
Courts of wards and other feudal prerogatives		1,400,000
Wine Licenses		312,200
Vintners delinquency		4,000
Offices sequestered for public service		800,000
Sequestration of lands of bishops, deans, and inferior clergy for four years		3,528,532
Tenths of all the clergy and other exactions from the church		1,600,320
Sale of church lands		10,035,663
Fee farm rents for 12 years		2,963,176
Other rents belonging to the Crown and the Principality of Wales		376,000
Sale of the Crown lands and Principality (£120,000 per annum)		1,200,000
Sale of forest lands and houses belonging to the king		656,000
Sequestrations of estates and compositions with individuals in England		4,564,986
Compositions with delinquents in Ireland		1,000,000
Sale of estates of delinquents in England		2,245,000
Sale of Irish lands		1,322,000
Ransom of captives		102,000
New River Water		8,000
		*£83,331,198

Thus we see the ravages on public and private property, and the shocking tyranny, barbarity, and oppression, which revolutions produce. It has been the lot of the present generation to know, that scenes of equal or even greater atrocity have taken place in a neighbouring country, from the contagion of which this nation has been happily sheltered.

Those great reformers of abuses, the long Parliament, when they assumed the government of the country, instead of applying to their constituents for their accustomed wages during their residence in the capital, voted to each member for his own private use,—first £4 a week, and afterwards, it is said, distributed among themselves out of the public treasury (according to Walker) £300,000 a year!

Under pretence of rewarding the godly for the good cause, considerable sums were improvidently squandered. Lenthal, the speaker, received £6,000 at once, besides offices to the amount of £7,730 a year. Bradshaw, president of the pretended court of justice, by whom the King was condemned, received the present of an estate worth £1000 a year, besides the King's house at Eltham, for the active part he took in that iniquitous transaction. And there was besides expended in free gifts to the saints the sum of £679,800!

* See Sir John Sinclair's interesting History of the Public Revenue of the British Empire, 3d Edit. Vol. I. pages 284—5.

The long Parliament is also accused of suffering the most enormous frauds to be perpetrated with impunity. Instead of the public accounts being examined at the Exchequer, where peculation could be detected, every branch of the revenue and every article of expence were entrusted to a committee of the House, who appropriated whatever sum they thought proper to their own private use. By these frauds the Parliament was disabled from paying the army regularly. Its arrears amounted to £331,000; and the mutiny which ensued was the cause of Cromwell's exaltation. The troops saw with indignation the members of the House of Commons rioting in wealth, procured by public plunder, while they who had fought their battles could hardly procure a subsistence. "*That Parliament bestowed upon itself* (according to Walker) *£1000 a week out of the public Treasury, while the soldiers' wants were great, and the people in the utmost necessity.*"

Cromwell is said to have expended £60,000 a year in procuring intelligence; but it is supposed to have been more of a personal than a public nature, since he was surrounded by many powerful and desperate enemies, and he resorted to this expensive expedient for his own safety.

It has been said, that Parliament left about £500,000 in the Treasury, and stores to the value of £700,000, when its authority was destroyed by Cromwell; yet such was the expence of his administration, that he died indebted to the amount of £2,474,290. It consisted principally of arrears to the army and navy, and was paid after the restoration.

CHARLES II.

The restoration of Charles II. had been passionately desired by a people who had so long suffered by civil wars, and by a species of tyranny, oppression, and injustice, which until lately had no parallel; yet from the loose and dissolute character of this monarch and the bigotry of his brother James, by whose advice public affairs were principally conducted, the beneficial effects, which had been anticipated by the people, were not realized. And his government neither made his subjects happy at home, nor was it honourable abroad. He disgraced himself by becoming a pensioner of France and the tool of Lewis XIV.

In this reign, the financial affairs of the nation were new modelled. A regular peace establishment was settled. The navy required about £300,000 a year, exclusive of the sums laid out in time of war. That of the army (the first kept up in England in time of peace) for guards and garrisons amounted to about £202,000, and the number of troops varied from 4000 to 8000 men. Even this small body excited suspicion and jealousy, and by a vote of the Commons in 1679 was declared contrary to law. The ordnance, including ordinary and extraordinary expences, amounted only to about £40,000.

The nature and amount of the civil list during this reign have been clearly ascertained, and can be best explained by the following statement.

Expences of the crown for one year, as allotted by the Council 26th January, 1675-6.

King's Household	£52,247
Buildings and Repairs	10,000
Privy Purse	36,000
For the Queen	23,000
Public Intelligence	5,000
Treasurer of the Chamber	20,000
Great Wardrobe	16,000
Band of Pensioners	3,000
Robes	4,000
Jewel Office	4,000
Pensions, including the Queen Mother, and Duke of York	87,000
Ambassadors	40,000
Judges, Masters in Chancery, &c.	49,000
Master of the Horse	10,000
Casual Disbursements	10,000
Hawks, Harriers, Tents, &c.	1,500
Secret Service Money	20,000
New Year's Gifts	3,600
Tower Expences for Prisoners	768
Management of Excise and Customs	63,500
Angel Gold for healing Medals	2,000
Liberates out of the Exchequer	1,500
	<u>£ 462,115</u>

PEACE ESTABLISHMENT.

Navy	£300,000
Army	212,000
Ordnance	<u>40,000</u> — 552,000

MISCELLANEOUS EXPENCES.

Garrison at Tangiers	£ 57,200
Interest of the King's Debts	<u>100,000</u> — <u>157,200</u>
	Total £1,171,315

The Parliament, soon after the restoration, had voted the King a revenue of £1,200,000 a year, which might probably have defrayed the ordinary expences; but it appears, this sum was never fully made up, nor were its deficiencies compensated by new and additional supplies. The King at the same time, not very economical, incurred many incidental expences of so heavy a nature, that he was in perpetual distress.

At the conclusion of the civil war every vestige of royalty had been totally annihilated. The King's palaces and furniture, and even the jewels of the crown had been sold, and every measure had been taken, as if monarchy was never again to be the established government of England. Parliament was, therefore, obliged to grant considerable sums for the coronation, and to make up for those heavy losses, which the crown had sustained. By two different acts £140,000 were appropriated to these purposes, besides a free voluntary present to the King, the amount of which is unknown.

Charles was so ill advised as to enter into an unjust war with the Dutch, who had offered him every satisfaction he could reasonably desire. Parliament voted no less than £5,483,845 for carrying on this war; but the funds, appropriated to that purpose, were not sufficiently productive. The only compensation England received, was the town and province of New York in North America;—very inadequate indeed, when the blood and treasure wasted in so iniquitous a contest, and the disgrace at Chatham are taken into consideration.

Charles, instigated by Louis, entered into a second war with the Dutch, during which £1,238,750 was granted by Parliament. The war was justly unpopular, and Parliament refused to give him any adequate assistance.

The only other warlike expence in this reign consisted in propositions for a rupture with France, to which the king was strongly urged by his parliament; but the monarch and the legislature had become so jealous of one another, that although some supplies were granted, the affair ended in nothing. Some assistance was given to Portugal,—an expedition was sent against Algiers,—and some disturbances were quelled in Virginia; but the expences could not be considerable.

The prodigality of this monarch occasioned much of the disgrace which attached to his reign. He even confessed to his parliament, that he had been less frugal than he ought to have been, and resolved to be more so in future.

He endeavoured, during the greatest part of his reign, with a revenue comparatively narrow to support a splendid court, profuse mistresses, and rapacious favourites. At length, however, sensible of his errors, he became as much distinguished for œconomy as he had been for profusion; and, greatly retrenching his expenditure, he was able to carry on the usual routine of his government without any supply from Parliament. This course he had pursued for three years with a firmness and strength of mind, of which he was thought incapable; apparently with a determination to alter his whole conduct, and to throw him-

self on the affections of his people, when death arrested his progress, proving how dangerous it is to postpone resolutions of amendment.

On the restoration of the king, the commons, finding that his father's income amounted to about £900,000 a year, resolved that the permanent revenue of the crown should be fixed at £1,200,000. It consisted of the following branches.—

1. The Customs, or the duties of tonnage and poundage	£ 400,000
2. Royal Domains	100,000
3. Dean Forest	5,000
4. Post Office	26,000
5. Hereditary Excise	274,950
6. Hearth Money	170,604
7. First Fruits and Tenths	18,800
8. Coinage and Pre-emption of Tin	12,000
9. Wine Licences	20,000
10. Miscellaneous branches	54,356
	<u>£1,081,710</u>

Thus it appears, that the produce or estimated produce of these Imposts fell short of the £1,200,000 voted to the King.

The mode of raising occasional supplies during this reign was by *poll taxes, additional duties on the excise and customs, subsidies, a land tax, and stamp duties.*

The money granted to Charles in the course of his reign, in addition to his permanent revenue amounted to £13,414,868. His exchequer was, however, improved by other means, namely by the Dowry of £500,000, which the king was to receive with Catharine of Portugal, besides Tangiers and Bombay. It is said, that only one moiety of the Dowry of £500,000 was actually paid. The sale of the fee farm rents of the crown, authorised by Act of Parliament in 1670, has been supposed to produce about £500,000, although the exact sum cannot be ascertained. The sale of the town of Dunkirk in Flanders produced also £400,000. Charles, to his indelible disgrace, actually accepted and received a secret pension from France, which may be estimated from its commencement to its termination to amount to about £950,000 sterling. The king's share of prize money, during his first Dutch war, amounted to £340,000, and on agreeing to conclude a second peace he received about £300,000 sterling.

Notwithstanding the hereditary revenue, the additional grants of parliament, and the incidental sums which he received, arising from the sources thus detailed, the king was reduced to such difficulties in 1672, that he declared "that whoever discovered a mode of supplying his necessities should be rewarded with the office of *Treasurer.*" Lord Clifford, who had then the care of the treasury, proposed to shut up the exchequer, and, instead of paying principal sums, which had been advanced on its

security, to issue only the legal interest of 6 per cent. By this infamous and disreputable expedient, Charles is said to have reaped a pecuniary profit of more than £1,200,000.

By this time the principles of the English constitution, with respect to taxation, were fully understood, and the power of the crown to levy impositions so totally annihilated, that, during the greater part of this king's reign, his subjects had little reason to complain of illegal exactions. An arbitrary duty, indeed, was laid on coals during the war with Holland, under the Pretence of private convoys, against which Parliament remonstrated. Charles, in addition to this, at the conclusion of his reign, compelled the different corporations to surrender their charters into his hands, and exacted considerable sums previous to their restitution.

The money received by Charles II. during his reign, may be thus stated.

1. Miscellaneous Resources.—Queen's Portion	-	-	£250,000
Sale of Royal Domains	-	-	500,000
Price of Dunkirk	-	-	400,000
Pensions and Donations from France	-	-	950,000
Plunder	-	-	640,000
Shutting up the Exchequer	-	-	1,328,526
Extortions	-	-	100,000
			4,168,526
2. Parliamentary Grants for Public Services	-	-	13,414,863
3. Permanent Revenue, or the Income of the Crown at £1,000,000 a year	-	-	26,400,000
			Total about £ 43,983,394

The Money coined during this reign amounted in Gold to	£4,177,253	12	5
Ditto in Silver	3,722,180	2	8½
Total	£7,899,433	15	1½

In the course of this reign, Charles demanded from the Dutch £10,000 a year for the privilege of fishing on the British coasts; but the failure of his warlike enterprises against that nation could not flatter him with success.

The financial history of this period is distinguished by two important alterations,—first, with regard to the manner of imposing taxes on the clergy,—and second, as to the appropriation of the public supplies. The clergy were no longer taxed by the sovereign as in former reigns; but were placed on the same footing with the laity, both with respect to taxation and the right of voting at elections for members of parliament.

The grants of parliament, in former reigns, were merely considered as temporary aids, to assist the king in defraying such expences as might be incurred for the public benefit, and were generally left to the sole disposal of the crown. But after the restoration, parliament thought it necessary to specify the purpose for which each sum was granted; and thus appropriating clauses came to be introduced.

JAMES II.

James II. succeeded his brother Charles, on the 6th February, 1684. The despotic and arbitrary principles of the monarch were first developed by the measures he pursued with respect to revenue. Although the chief part of the late king's income had been granted only for his life, James, contrary to the advice of his council, issued a proclamation commanding the customs and other duties to be paid as formerly; and in his first speech from the throne, after declaring that he expected his revenue would be settled on the same footing with that of the late king, his brother, he intimated to them "that any attempt to secure the frequent meeting of parliament by granting moderate supplies would be resented. I plainly tell you (said he) that such an expedient would be very improper to employ with me, and that the best way to engage me to meet you often is always to use me well."

The only good qualities, which James seemed to possess, were frugality in his expences, and a strong desire to increase the naval strength of the kingdom. His zeal and judgement in respect to the maritime strength of the country, and the improvements he introduced, reflect a considerable degree of lustre on that part of his administration.

Under pretence that the militia were found unserviceable during Monmouth's rebellion, he demanded a supply from Parliament to enable him to maintain those additional forces, which he had thought proper to levy at the time; and he actually had in pay 30,000 regular troops when invaded by his successor.

The only temporary grant during this reign, which was carried into effect, was £400,000 for the purpose of suppressing the rebellion.

Soon after this king's accession, such was then the predominant authority and influence attached to the crown, that Parliament granted a larger revenue to James for his life, than any of his predecessors had ever enjoyed. It actually amounted to £2,000,000 per annum, arising from the following branches, viz:—

Tonnage and poundage, including the wood, coal, and salt farm	£600,000
Excise on beer and ale	666,383
Hearth money	245,000
Post office	65,000
Wine licences	10,000
New impositions on wine and vinegar	172,901
Duties on tobacco and sugar	148,861
Duties on french linen, brandy, and silk, &c.	93,710
	£2,001,855

In the course of this reign, which lasted only four years, a coinage took place to the following extent: viz.—

Of Gold		£2,113,638 18 8½
Of Silver		518,316 9 5½
Total		<u>£2,631,955 8 2</u>

There was scarcely any department of government, during the short reign of this ill fated monarch, in which he did not betray the despotic principles, upon which he had predetermined that his administration of the government should be conducted. His first object was to acquire revenue, as the means of consolidating his power, to be employed in altering the established protestant religion, and annihilating the rights of the people; and the result was, that he lost the confidence of the nation, and was deservedly compelled to abandon a throne which he proved himself unworthy to fill.

It is, however, worthy of remark, that the English nation governed from the first dawn of civilization, and particularly since the conquest by a line of sovereigns, who ruled with the most arbitrary sway. The people owe their emancipation from slavery, and the excellent free constitution they now enjoy, chiefly to the mis-rule and bad government, extravagance, profligacy, and crimes of a considerable proportion of the monarchs previous to the revolution who had mounted the throne of England. The criminal conduct of king John, and his consequent embarrassments and distresses gave rise to *Magna Charta*, and all the important privileges which it tended to confirm; while the extortions and arbitrary sway of Edward I, and the expensive wars in which he was engaged led to the famous statute, *De Tallagio non condescendo*, which may be considered as one of the most important events recorded in the history of this country.

The extortions and arbitrary exactions of all the princes of the Norman and Saxon lines, and of the houses of Lancaster, York, and Tudor with the concessions they occasionally made tended to enlighten the minds of the people as to the true nature of the liberty of the subject, and the proper duty of the sovereign. They saw that the reigning monarchs more or less trampled under foot the existing compacts between the crown and the people established by *Magna Charta* and the *Act of Henry III**.

The absurd principle of indefeasible right, which was strongly impressed upon the minds of the princes of the house of Stewart, their mis-rule and departure from the constitution as then established, joined to the obstinacy, bigotry, and infatuation of James, although highly oppressive and reprehensible, were ultimately productive of great benefit to the nation. It generated the Revolution. It produced the Bill of Rights, by which

* The History of the Commonwealth of England, the abuses, exactions, and corrupt conduct of the long Parliament, and the tyranny and oppression of Cromwell exhibited in strong colours the miseries of a republican government, since in atrocity, cruelty, and malignity it far exceeded the worst of the regal governments.

the prerogatives of the sovereign and the rights of the people were clearly defined, and it established on a firm basis the liberties of the people.

Had the sovereigns been all men of prudence and correct conduct, who have swayed the sceptre of England, from the conquest down to the Revolution, no doubt can be entertained of the absolute government, which existed in the early parts of our history being continued with little variation down to the present time. And hence, we see, that great advantages are often derived by communities from the infirmity of human nature, and the irregular and bad passions of men possessing great power, and filling high and exalted stations in society.

The following is a Statement of the Revenues of the Sovereigns of the House of Stuart, at their accession to the throne of England.

The Revenue of James I, when he ascended the throne of England, on	}	£600,000
the 24th March, 1602 - - - - -		
The Revenue of Charles I, when he ascended the throne of England, on	}	895,819
the 27th March, 1625 - - - - -		
The Common Wealth, 1648 - - - - -		1,517,247
The Revenue of Charles II, - - - - -		1,800,000
The Revenue of James II, when he ascended the throne of England, on	}	2,001,855
the 6th of February, 1684 - - - - -		

THE REVOLUTION.

James the II, on abdicating the throne and retiring to France, was succeeded by William, Prince of Orange and Mary his consort as eldest daughter of the king.

WILLIAM III. AND MARY.

William III. and Mary ascended the throne of England, on the 13th February, 1688. The events following so great a revolution in the government of the country, and the wars which ensued involved the nation in very great expences, and unavoidably introduced not only a great variety of new taxes, but also considerable additions to those duties which had formerly been imposed.

The permanent revenue arose out of the customs, excise, and other miscellaneous duties. Many branches were added during this reign to the old subsidy of tonnage and poundage.

Duties were either imposed, or after former grants on the eve of expiring were renewed on the following articles,—*wines, vinegar, tobacco, salt imported, spices, pictures, coals exported or carried coastwise, muslins, whale fins, foreign liquors imported, &c.*

By these means, during this reign, the sum of £13,296,833 net money was raised, besides *bounties, drawbacks*, and the expence of collection.

The revenue of excise made considerable progress during this reign:—excises on salt,—on the distillery,—and on malt, since better known under the name of the malt tax, were introduced during this reign. And this branch of revenue yielded in the whole £13,649,328.

The other sources of revenue of a miscellaneous nature were the *land tax, poll taxes, a tax on births, marriages, and burials, hearth money, the post office*, and other smaller branches. The amount of the land tax, during this reign, amounted to £19,174,059. The poll taxes, which were collected quarterly, amounted within the same period to £2,557,649*. That on burials, births, marriages, bachelors, and widowers who had no children, amounted to £275,517 18s. 1d. The remaining resources arose from hearth-money, the post-office, and other smaller branches, together with loans of a permanent nature, amounting in all to £9,745,300 10s. 9d.—and temporary loans unpaid £13,348,680 5s. 10½d.

RECAPITULATION.

Customs	-	-	-	-	-	-	£13,296,833	14	6
Excise	-	-	-	-	-	-	13,649,328	0	5½
Land taxes	-	-	-	-	-	-	19,174,059	8	3½
Polls	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,557,649	7	7¼
Burials, births, marriages, and bachelors, &c.							275,517	18	1
Various articles, including permanent loans	-	-					9,745,300	10	9
Temporary loans unpaid	-	-	-	-	-	-	13,348,680	5	10
							£ 72,047,369	5	6¼

To this sum is to be added £80,138 18s. 10½d. which remained in the exchequer and in the hands of the receivers, on the 5th November, 1688.

* The poll tax was assessed in the following manner:—

	Collected quarterly.
Persons poor, including those not worth £50	£ 1 0
Persons worth £300	1 0 0
Tradesmen and shopkeepers	10 0
Persons chargeable with 6 or militia for each horse	1 0 0
Persons keeping a hackney or stage coach	1 5 0
Spiritual and temporal peers	1 0 0
Attorneys, proctors, and other officers in the civil and military courts	1 0 0
Clergymen, preachers, and teachers of any kind, enjoying £80 a year	1 0 0

☞ All nonjurors in every case to pay double.

AND PUBLIC EXPENDITURE.

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The income of England anno 1701 (the year preceding the death of this monarch) was as follows :—

Customs	-	-	-	-	-	-	£1,539,100
Excise	-	-	-	-	-	-	986,004
Post office	-	-	-	-	-	-	130,399
Land tax at 3s. in the pound	-	-	-	-	-	-	989,965
Various small taxes	-	-	-	-	-	-	249,737
							<u>£ 3,895,205</u>
Public income at the Revolution	-	-					2,001,855
Total increase of revenue at the death of king William	-						<u>£ 1,893,350</u>

In the reign of this monarch, the malt tax, the tax on hackney coaches, and hawkers and pedlars with various others were first introduced. In 1695, certain duties were laid on glass ware and stone bottles :—the latter, however, were repealed soon after, and half the duties on the former, but these also were repealed in the following year. It will be seen in the sequel that these duties have been restored, and that on glass has become very productive.

The impolitic taxes which were imposed on the restoration of Charles II. on woollen manufactures, and on all corn, grain, bread, biscuit, and meal exported, were all repealed during this reign,—namely, in the year 1700.—So much were the minds of men altered on the subject of corn, that instead of a duty, a bounty was granted on exportation.

It has already been stated, that the money received into the exchequer during this reign amounted to £72,047,396. It remains now to be explained in what manner this large sum was expended.

No specific sum had been allotted at this period for the peculiar expences of the sovereign. Certain taxes, however, amounting to about £680,000 on an average of years were appropriated for that purpose ; and it appears, that the expences of the civil list, from the 5th November, 1688, to the 25th March, 1702, stood as follows,—being 13½ years.

The cofferer of the household	-	-	-	-	-	-	£1,300,130	2	2¼
The treasurer of the chambers	-	-	-	-	-	-	484,763	16	1½
The treasurer of the chambers for the late queen's coffers, &c.	-						328	16	0
The great wardrobe	-	-	-	-	-	-	319,876	8	2¼
The treasurer of the chambers for the late queen's mourning	-						42,844	4	5
							<u>£2,147,943</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>0</u>

	Brought over	2,147,943	7	0
The robes - - - - -		57,128	2	2½
The lord Sydney for clothes furnished king Charles the second - -		5,120	1	3
The paymaster of the works - - - - -		474,050	15	1½
The paymaster of the works on account of the queen's funeral - -		4,000	0	0
To Mr. Roberts, paymaster of the works at Windsor, besides what has been paid out of the revenues of the castle - - - }		5,000	0	0
Expence of making His Majesty's gardens until 1695, besides the - gardeners' salaries paid by the treasurer of the chambers - }		115,097	12	7½
Expence on the contract of £4,800 per annum commencing from 1695		16,800	0	0
Expence of the new allowance of £2,600 per annum, which com- menced from Christmas, 1700 - - - }		1,900	0	0
Expence of horses, for liveries and extraordinaries - - -		235,965	15	3½
Foreign ministers for ordinaries and extraordinaries - - -		462,753	7	2½
Fees and salaries - - - - -		858,056	16	9
Pensions and annuities - - - - -		686,189	17	7
Queen Dowager - - - - -		178,031	15	4
Late queen's treasurer - - - - -		506,356	16	1½
French protestants - - - - -		75,000	0	0
Prince and Princess of Denmark - - - - -		638,921	15	7½
Duke of Gloucester on 1,500 per annum - - - - -		37,500	0	0
Band of gentlemen pensioners - - - - -		69,000	0	0
Secret services—Secretaries of the treasury - - - - -		616,323	7	2
Secretaries of State - - - - -		76,963	19	6
To particular persons by His Majesty's warrants under his royal sign manual - - - - - }		82,100	0	0
Privy purse - - - - -		483,555	0	0
To the Earl of Portland, for purchasing fee farm rents - - -		24,571	5	4
To the Lord Somers - - - ditto. - - - - -		33,600	0	0
Jewels - - - - -		66,069	0	0
Plate - - - - -		102,843	13	8
Bounties paid at the Exchequer to several persons by His Majesty's particular warrants - - - - - }		226,823	19	1
Monsieur Fleury, for goods taken from the French, at Bourbon Fort Hudson's Bay, and given to the Hudson's Bay Company, which by the treaty of Ryswick were to be restored - }		7,086	17	0
Subscribers of £2,000,000 for the East India trade, an allowance of 1 per cent - - - - - }		20,000	0	0
Carried over		£ 8,314,782	17	10¼

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	Brought over	£ 8,314,782	15	10½
Receivers of 2,000,000 in rewards and for charges in passing their accounts	16,000	0	0	
Mr. Stratford in part of £20,000, for cloth sent to Sweden	12,000	0	0	
Earl of Ranelagh, for Lord Fairfax £600,—Bounties for officers' widows £1670,—for French officers £730,—for liveries, for Lumley's trumpeters £393 3s. 0d.—and for court drums and fifes salary £240				3,634 5 0
Contingents of divers natures, viz. law charges,—liberates of the Exchequer,—riding charges to messengers of the court and receipt of Exchequer,—rewards and extraordinary charges to receivers of taxes, and to several others on sundry occasions,—surplusses of accounts, printers' bills,—sundry works and repairs by surveyors of woods, private roads, and other particular officers,—His Majesty's subscription of £10,000 to the Bank of England,—a like sum to the East India Company, also £3,000 for carrying on the trade,—bounties for apprehending highwaymen, traitors, and libellers,—money paid for purchasing land to be laid into His Majesty's Park at Windsor, and many other incidental payments				534,089 1 10½
	Total	£8,880,506	2	9

The yearly expenditure of the civil list, of which the above is the aggregate of the whole reign, stood as follows:—

From 5th Nov., 1688, to Michaelmas	Expended each year.	To Michaelmas	Expended each year.
1689	£424,918	1696	£ 699,485
1690	644,145	Idem	1697 745,496
1691	557,092	Idem	1698 374,777
1692	631,988	Idem	1699 892,669
1693	696,958	Idem	1700 683,794
1694	682,437	Idem	1701 704,412
1695	764,739	To Ladyday	1702 293,919
		Total	£ 8,876,995

General View of the Expences of King William's Reign.

The naval expences during this reign amounted to	£19,822,141
The military expences, exclusive of Ireland, to	18,165,051
The ordnance department	3,008,535
	£ 40,995,727

The expences of the revolution, paid to the United Provinces	£40,995,727
for the expences of the charges of the King's Expedition	600,000
to England	
The expences of the war in Ireland	3,851,655
The expences incurred on re-coining the money of the realm	3,170,840
Miscellaneous expences	41,845
Principal and interest of public debts	13,691,458*
Balance of account ending at Ladyday, 1702	624,477
Expences of the civil list, as above stated	8,880,506
Total amount of the expenditure of public money in 13½ years	£72,127,508

The charges of the war, which King William carried on against Louis XIV. of France, including the war in Ireland, amounted to the following sums:—

Extra expences of the navy	£9,622,141
Idem army	14,566,051
Idem the ordnance	2,408,535
	<u>26,596,727</u>
Expences for the reduction of Ireland	3,851,655
Total	£30,447,382

Thus it appears to be, what not a little burthensome to the King, whose object was to reduce France over Europe, and rendered it easier in the following reign to control his excessive ambition, and to secure the liberties of England.

The peace establishment of this monarch would be considered as moderate at the present period.

It may be estimated as follows:

The civil list	£680,000
The navy	877,455
The army	300,000
The ordnance	50,000
Total	£1,907,455

* This reign is rendered remarkable from the circumstance of its having given rise to the funding system, and to the establishment of the Bank of England.

QUEEN ANNE.

Queen Anne commenced her Reign as the Sovereign of Great Britain and Ireland on the 8th of March 1701.

An expensive war, during the greater part of this reign, added considerably to the public debt and to the burthens of the people.

The following is the amount of the sums received during the twelve years and three-quarters, while this sovereign swayed the sceptre of Great Britain and Ireland.

The Customs, which had greatly increased, produced during this reign to the Exchequer	} £ 15,113,811
The Excise, which had also been augmented in consequence of a variety of new duties, comprehending soap, candles, starch, leather, paper, printed linens, &c.	} 20,859,311
The Land Tax during this reign was rendered very productive from its being generally kept up at 4s. in the pound. It produced in all the sum of	} 12,285,909
The Post Office, Stamps, and smaller branches of the Revenues produced a total of	} 5,261,346
	£ 62,520,377
The amount of the Loans on temporary as well as perpetual taxes, borrowed to carry on the war during this reign, may be stated at	} 59,853,154
Total .	£ 122,373,531

It was proposed during this reign to lay a heavy tax upon income. And resolutions were actually passed in the House of Commons, that a duty of 50 per cent should be imposed on the value of all stock in trade, and 25 per cent on all money at interest, four shillings in the pound on all annuities, pensions, and yearly stipends,—five shillings in the pound upon all salaries, fees and perquisites of office,—and four shillings in the pound upon persons exercising any profession whatever, whether ecclesiastical, legal, medical, or commercial, and all persons (the poor excepted) should pay within one year the sum of *four shillings*, and further a duty of one per cent on the shares of the capital stock of all corporations or companies to be continued for five years.

But the proposed Tax on Income was, afterwards abandoned, and a Bill was brought in for imposing a duty upon buying, selling, or bargaining for shares in joint stocks

or corporations, and in consequence of petitions from the East India Company and the Bank, stating it to be contrary to public faith and the acts by which they were incorporated, this tax was also abandoned. Another attempt in 1702 proved equally unsuccessful. Nor did the pressure of the times enable the ministers of those days to reconcile the people to a system of finance so extremely burthensome, and calculated to paralyse the industry of the country by absorbing the capital employed in carrying it on.

In the course of this reign, a bill passed the Commons to examine into the value of lands and of all grants made by the crown since February 1688, with a view of resuming the same and applying them to the public necessities. A resolution also passed in the Commons to lay a tax upon all grants from the crown since 6th February, 1684, of 1-5th part of the value of the grant at the time it was made; but both were rejected in the House of Lords.

The reign of Queen Anne is rendered remarkable in consequence of the union, which was happily effected between England and Scotland in 1709, and which has proved so advantageous to both countries, which have since equally flourished under the auspices of an united legislature.

At the memorable æra of the union, the revenues of England stood thus:—

CIVIL LIST REVENUE OF ENGLAND.

Excise of Beer (2s. 6d. per barrel)	£ 286,178
Further subsidies of tonnage and poundage	256,841
Post Office	101,101
Fines in the Alienation Office	4,804
Post Fines	2,276
Wine Licences	6,314
Sheriffs Proffers	1,040
Compositions in the Exchequer	13
Seizures of uncustomed and prohibited goods	13,005
Revenue of the Duchy of Cornwall	9,869
Revenue of the principality of Wales	6,857
Rents of Crown Lands, Fines, Leases, &c.	2,906
Total for the Civil List	£ 691,204

OTHER TAXES.

Customs appropriated in 1710	£ 345,704
Impositions on Wine, Vinegar, and Tobacco	373,485
Additional Impositions	39,645
Duties on Coals and Culm appropriated to September 1710	113,688
15 per Cent on Muslins, &c. Idem	116,475
25 per Cent additional duty on French goods	10,794
Five shillings per ton on French shipping	81
Plantation duties	877
4½ per cent on Barbadoes and Leeward Islands	6,459
The Coinage Duty	7,350
Duty on Whale fins and Scotch linen	10,939
½ Additional tonnage and poundage for 98 years	81,745
⅔ Additional . . . ditto . . . for 4 years from 1708	160,000
9d. Per barrel, Excise for 98 years	164,828
Another 9d. per barrel to the Bank	155,000
Another 9d. per barrel for 99 years from 1692	155,000
Duties on low wines appropriated to June 1710	25,267
Rent of Hackney Coaches	2,800
Licences to Hawkers and Pedlars	6,460
Stamp Duty, partly to the East India Company,—the rest appropriated to 1710	89,110
One shilling a basket on Salt appropriated to 1710	54,621
Two shillings and four-pence on Salt for the East India Company	128,038
Duty on Windows appropriated to 1710	112,069
£ 3,700 per week out of the Excise	192,400
	£ 2,352,836
The Malt Duty (often deficient)	650,000
The Land Tax	1,997,763
	£ 5,000,599
Revenue of the Civil List already detailed	691,204
Total Revenue	£ 5,691,803

Having thus stated the National Revenue, including the loans, during the whole of this reign, and also the permanent receipts applicable to the civil list and all other

purposes, it now remains to state the manner in which these revenues have been applied.

During this reign, the nation was engaged for ten years in what was, at that time, considered as a most expensive war when compared with those of Elizabeth: the latter with a much smaller revenue humbled the pride of Spain, then one of the most powerful monarchies in Europe, while the former greatly checked the growing power of France.

The total expences during this reign, which lasted twelve years four months and twenty-four days, are found to consist of the following items, viz:—

(A) The Civil List	£ 7,604,848
(B) The Expences of the Navy	23,484,574
(C) The Expences of the Army	32,975,331
(D) The Expences of the Ordnance	2,100,676
(E) The Transport Service	796,220
(F) The building and repairing of Churches	482,500
(G) The equivalent paid to Scotland on equalizing the taxes at the union	398,085
(H) Recompence for Tolls abolished at the union	7,641
(I) Expences incurred in the coinage	81,934
(K) Expence of the governments in the West Indies	37,100
(L) Money sent to Sweden	20,095
(M) Miscellaneous services	200,000
(N) Temporary loans repaid	31,661,176
(O) Interest of the permanent national debt	22,523,351
Total expences incurred in this reign	<u>£ 122,373,531</u>

(A) The medium of expence of the Civil List was about £ 586,900 per annum, but there was also voted on the 27th of June 1712 £500,000 to discharge the debts due on account of the Civil Government. The Revenues appropriated to the Civil List amounted to about £ 700,000 a year; but the Queen devoted £ 100,000 per annum out of this fund to the public service and for carrying on the war. The general estimate of the whole yearly expences of the Civil Government during this reign may be thus stated:—

In the Cofferer's Office - - - - -	£ 85,000
In the Treasurer of the Chambers' Office - - - - -	30,000
In the Great Wardrobe - - - - -	20,000
In the Office of the Robes - - - - -	3,000
In the Office of the Works - - - - -	39,000
For buying Horses, Coaches, and Liveries, &c. - - - - -	10,000
For ordinary entertainments and the extraordinaries of foreign Ministers - - - - -	75,000
Salaries payable to the Exchequer - - - - -	80,196
Pensions and Annuities - - - - -	42,898
	<u>£ 385,094</u>

Continued

	Continued	£ 385,094
Annual Pensions and Bounties per Warrants	- - - - -	87,495
Secret Service Money to the Secretaries of State	- - - - -	6,000
Her Majesty's Secret Services	- - - - -	27,000
Privy Purse	- - - - -	30,000
Jewels, Plate, and Presents to Foreign Ministers	- - - - -	15,000
Contingencies	- - - - -	33,864
		£ 584,435

(B) Although the Naval Expences were considerable during this reign, yet no achievement of consequence took place. The Naval Peace Establishment for the year 1714 amounted to £765,700, therefore, according to the aggregate expence under this head, the war cost £13,918,323.

(C) The Peace Establishment of the Army voted anno 1713 was only 8,232 men and two companies of invalids amounting to £386,427. The forces in the plantations, exclusive of Minorca and Gibraltar, cost only £39,478, making in all £495,905 per annum, which in the space of twelve years is £5,140,860, which reduces the actual expences of the war to £27,104,691.

(D) The Peace Establishment of the Ordnance may be stated at £58,000 per annum during this reign, consequently, the war expence may be estimated at £1,404,676.

(E) The first instance of the expence of conveying troops being made a separate article occurred in this reign.

(F) During this reign £480,000 were voted for repairing Westminster Abbey, and building new churches in the capital, and £2,500 were voted for the English Church at Rotterdam.

(G) In adjusting the articles of union between England and Scotland, it was after much difficulty ultimately settled, as England had a heavy National Debt and Scotland little or none, in order to equalize the burthen which the latter country was to bear by the payment of the same Taxes,—that Scotland should receive from England £398,085 10s. 0d. in full compensation.

(H) This sum was given to indemnify the city of Carlisle and the Musgrove family for Tolls abolished by the 6th article of the union.

(I) The Coinage Expences during this reign were in some degree increased in consequence of the article in the act of union, which declared that the specie of the two kingdoms should be the same in future. This branch of the public expenditure amounted to £81,934, of which about £4,130 was laid out in the Mint of Scotland.

(K) When the Colonial Expences in this reign are compared with the present, the disparity is very great; the number of Colonies however has been greatly augmented.

(L) This sum is stated to have been paid to Francis Stratford, Esq. *for making good Treaties with Sweden*,—probably for making good the National Treaties with that power; the words however admit of a different interpretation.

(M) Under the head of Miscellaneous Services £5,579 were paid to compensate losses sustained by tumultuous and rebellious proceedings. £64,629 were granted to Commissioners for examining the public accounts, and stating the equivalent due to Scotland, &c. with other disbursements.

(N) This sum was laid out in repaying money borrowed on the Land and Malt Taxes and other temporary securities.

(O) This sum was for interest paid to the Bank of England and other permanent creditors of the nation.

Queen Anne's wars cost on an average £4,336,000 a year, and may be thus stated—when the war terminated in 1712:—

Extra expences of the Navy	£ 13,913,323
Idem . . . of the Army	27,104,691
Idem . . . of the Ordnance	1,404,676
Idem . . . of the Transport Service	796,220
Sufferers at Nevis and St. Christopher's	141,093
Total	<u>£ 43,360,003</u>

The Peace Establishment of this Sovereign may be thus stated:—

The Civil List	£ 700,000
The Navy	765,700
The Army	425,905
The Ordnance	58,000
Miscellaneous Services	16,000
Total	<u>£ 1,965,605</u>

The nation was consoled for the charges of the war by repeated victories over the enemy, and ultimately by an honorable peace, by which this country obtained the fortress of Gibraltar, and the Island of Minorca.

GEORGE I.

George I. Elector of Hanover began his Reign on the 1st of August, 1714.

At its commencement £700,000 a year was appropriated by parliament to the expences of his majesty's civil government; and £77,694 of unappropriated money was directed to be applied towards discharging such extraordinary expences as might be incurred at his accession to the throne: different sums were afterwards voted by parliament in aid of the civil list.

It is to be regretted that, during the reign, no complete statement was made up of the total income and expenditure of the country. It was however a period of great tranquillity. The loans amounted only to £2,832,093 during the whole of this reign; and this monarch, in the administration of the government, adhered strictly to the constitution as by law established.

The aggregate sums which passed into the Exchequer of George I, during a reign of twelve years ten months and ten days, may be thus stated :—

The Customs	£ 21,632,985
Excise	30,421,451
Stamps	1,675,609
Land Tax	18,470,022
Incidents	4,800,000
	77,000,067
Loans	2,832,093
Total during the whole reign	£ 79,832,160

During this reign an act passed, anno 1721, repealing all duties payable by law on the exportation of goods of the produce or manufacture of Great Britain, *Alum, Lead, Tin, Coals*, and some lesser articles excepted, and all sorts of drugs and dye-stuffs were permitted to be imported duty free. Whale fins and oil, the produce of the British fishery, were also exempted from duty, and as a further encouragement it will be seen in the sequel, a bounty was granted in the succeeding reign. By the annual tax bill the estates of papists and non-jurors were doubly rated; in addition to which in 1722, parliament imposed an additional sum of £ 100,000 on their real and personal property. This tax produced £ 96,000.

In order to make up a considerable deficiency in the civil list revenue and to prevent the necessity of applying to parliament, two companies, called the Royal Exchange and London Insurance Companies, were established on agreeing to pay £ 300,000 to his majesty, namely, £ 150,000 from each Company.

The public Revenue at the time of this monarch's death, on the 11th of June, 1727, produced on a medium of four years as follows, viz.—

The Customs	£ 1,530,361
Excise (deducting 6d. per bushel on Malt)	1,927,354
Stamps	132,665
Duty on Houses and Windows	131,011
Hackney Coaches and Chairs	9,523
Hawkers and Pedlars	8,055
Sixpence in the pound on places and pensions	31,504
First fruits and tenths	16,473
Post Office	75,545
Salt Duty	185,505
Small branches belonging to the Civil List	55,892
Taxes known then under the name of the general fund	58,755
Total appropriated revenue	£ 4,162,643

ON THE PUBLIC REVENUES

	Brought over	£ 4,162,643
Land Tax at 4s. in the pound	£ 2,000,000	
Malt Tax at 6d. per bushel	750,000	
	<u>£ 2,750,000</u>	
Deduct deficiencies in 1726	150,000—2,600,000	
Total	<u>£ 6,762,643</u>	

EXPENDITURE.

The Civil List of this Monarch, during twelve years and a half, amounted to £ 10 632,514 and consisted of the following items:—

1. £ 700,000 per annum for twelve and a half years . . . £ 8,750,000
2. Vote at his majesty's accession to the throne . . . 77,694
3. By the 7 Geo. I. in full of the sums to be paid by the two Insurance Companies . . . 300,000
4. By the 7 Geo. I. and 11 Geo. I. money borrowed for the use of the Civil List on the 6d. per pound deduction from Pensions . . . 1,000,000
5. Paid the Prince of Wales £ 40,000 per annum for twelve and a half years, and the Queen £ 6,250 per annum out of the Customs . . . 504,820

Total to the Royal Family . . . £ 10,632,514

According to this aggregate, the charges upon the Civil List and the whole expences of the Royal Family amounted on an average of years to about £ 850,000 per annum.

The whole expences of this King's reign may be thus stated:

The Civil List	£ 10,632,514
Navy	12,923,851
Army	13,842,467
Ordnance	1,064,449
‡ Miscellaneous Services	150,000

£ 38,613,281

Interest of the public debts, loans and land tax deficiencies 41,218,879

£ 79,832,160

‡ The miscellaneous expences of this reign were very inconsiderable: £ 30,000 were voted for the expences of the Mint,—£ 23,935 as the damage incurred by burning two merchant ships from the Levant to prevent the infection,—£ 11,659 to make up losses sustained in consequence of riotous and rebellious proceedings in different parts of the kingdom, with other lesser matters,—in the whole not exceeding £ 150,000.

The national debt was considerably reduced during this reign by lowering the rate of interest paid to the public creditor. There were also two millions of the debt discharged.

During this reign the expences of the Peace Establishment may be thus stated:—

The Civil List	£ 850,000
The Navy	740,000
The Army	900,000
The Ordnance	73,000
Miscellaneous Services	20,000
Total :	<u>£ 2,583,000</u>

In the course of this reign some inconsiderable warlike preparations took place, which occasioned the following additional expence, viz.—

The Navy	£ 3,303,851
The Army	2,592,467
The Ordnance	151,949

Total extraordinary Expences during this reign £ 6,048,267

GEORGE II.

George II. ascended the throne of his Father on the 11th of June 1727.

The early part of the reign of this monarch was distinguished by every appearance of tranquillity, to which perhaps may be opposed some jealousies on the part of France, and no inconsiderable degree of rancour on the part of Spain.

At the commencement of the reign the duties, comprising the Civil List revenue, were continued by parliament during the life of the new Sovereign. It was at the same time specifically provided that, if these revenues did not yield £ 800,000 per annum, the deficiency should be made up by the public ; but that any surplus should belong to the crown.

ON THE PUBLIC REVENUES

The aggregate revenues received, and which remain to be accounted for during the whole of this reign comprising thirty-three years, four months, and fourteen days, and also the aggregate expenditure may be thus stated:—

AGGREGATE RECEIPTS.

Customs	-	-	-	£49,838,854
Excise, including annual malt	93,747,167			
Stamps	-	-	-	4,377,957
Land tax	-	-	-	49,453,323
Miscellaneous taxes	-			19,800,000
				<u>217,217,301</u>
Loans during this reign	59,132,472			
				<u>59,132,472</u>
Total	-	£276,349,773		

☞ In 1729 the customs and excise on salt were abolished from Christmas 1730 under a conviction, that it was an impolitic tax highly injurious to the fisheries so essential to the naval strength of the country. But before the measure could operate beneficially to the country, the duties were revived. The same minister, (Sir Robert Walpole) who moved the repeal, also moved the revival, in order to enable him to reduce the land tax to one shilling in the pound.

AGGREGATE EXPENDITURE.

(A) Civil List	-	-	£27,280,000
(B) Navy	-	-	71,424,171
(C) Army	-	-	73,911,521
(D) Ordnance	-	-	6,706,674
(E) Other Military Expences			28,869
(F) Ecclesiastical Expences			152,240
(G) Westminster Bridge	-		216,500
(H) London Bridge	-	-	45,000
(I) Military Roads	-	-	24,000
(K) Making Harbours	-		43,360
(L) Public Rewards	-	-	22,000
(M) Public Monument to Captain Cornwall	-	-	3,000
(N) Heritable Jurisdiction in Scotland	-	-	152,037
(O) Debts due on the Scotch forfeited estates	-	-	72,410
(P) Charges on the Mint £7000 per annum for 33 years	-		231,000
(Q) Extra-expences of the Mint			31,364
(R) Horned Cattle	-	-	208,123
(S) Foundling Hospital	-		182,277
(T) Earthquake at Lisbon	-		100,000
(U) African Forts and Settlements			420,173
(V) American expences	-		1,697,424
(W) Miscellaneous expences			25,496
(X) Money paid pursuant to Addresses	-	-	25,000

£183,002,639

Interest of the public debts and

repayment of the principal 93,347,134

£276,349,773

(A) The sums expended in the department of the Civil List, from Midsummer 1727 to Midsummer 1760, were supplied from the following sources, viz.—

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Hereditary and Temporary Excise	8,173,166	3	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	Brought over	26,031,568	5	7 $\frac{1}{4}$
Subsidy of tonnage and poundage	9,599,267	19	10	Fines and Leases	142,126	18	5
From the aggregate fund, 1 Geo. II.	3,960,000	0	0	Sale of Lands	9,293	16	8
Ditto. 4 Geo. II.	61,647	1	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	Out of the supplies for the year 1729	115,000	0	0
Ditto. 9 Geo. II.	1,662,500	0	0	Granted by Parliament, as por-	247,543	0	0
Ditto. 12 Geo. II.	47,764	18	4	tions to the Princesses of the			
Revenue of the Post Office	1,191,613	17	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	Royal Family	287,741	6	2
Fines of Alienation Office	102,480	13	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	Granted to the Duke of Cum-			
Post Fines	75,108	0	0	berland for his important ser-			
Wine Licences	216,870	0	0	vices in quelling the rebellion,			
Sheriffs Proffers	20,663	9	10	anno 1746, £25,000 per an-	456,733	16	3 $\frac{1}{4}$
Compositions in the Exchequer	218	8	6	num. Aggregate amount du-			
Seizures of Contraband Goods, &c.	876,127	13	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	ring his life	£27,280,000	0	0
Rents of Lands	44,139	19	11	Out of the supplies 1747			
	£26,031,568	5	7 $\frac{1}{4}$				

(B) The grants for the Naval Service, during this reign, were certainly very extensive; but our naval exertions added much to the glory of the nation,—since the maritime power of France was almost annihilated in the two wars which occurred during this reign,—the whole amounting to £71,424,171.

(C) In the sum of £73,911,521 is included the two foreign wars in which this monarch was engaged, and the war of the rebellion in 1745.

(D) The Ordnance Expences include the purchase of ground for the purpose of fortification, as well as what was expended in the Land Service; the whole amounting to £6,706,674.

(E) In this sum is included £5,000, granted to Solomon Morsett and others for the loss of the ship *Isabella*, taken by the Spaniards in 1739,—*ten thousand pounds* voted to the corporation of Glasgow towards an indemnification for the money and goods extorted from that loyal city in the rebellion of 1745,—and £13,869 to the owners of the Spanish ship *Anna St. Felix*, by a grant anno 1756;—making in the whole £28,869.

(F) During this reign Westminster Abbey underwent a considerable repair, also the parish churches of St. Margaret and St. John in Westminster, the expence of which was defrayed by a vote in parliament, and amounted in the whole to £152,240.

(G) Parliament, during this reign, voted £216,500 for building Westminster bridge, and to defray the expence of opening a passage from thence to Charing Cross,—this improvement therefore became a national expence.

(H) The sum of £45,000 was also voted for rebuilding London bridge during this reign.

(I) During this reign a military road had been formed across the island from Newcastle-upon-Tyne to Carlisle, for which purpose £24,000 was granted. Roads were also made upon a very extensive scale in the Highlands of Scotland, after the rebellion in 1745;—but for many years they were included in the extraordinaries of the army, and do not appear separately in the course of the reign.

(K) The harbours of Rye, in Kent, and Milford, in Wales, were, at this time, considered as objects of public consideration:—for the improvement of the former £23,360 were granted, and for the latter £20,000,—together £43,360.

(L) Public rewards:—*first*, to Sir Thomas Lambe, who, at great hazard and expence, had introduced into this country the art of making fine organzine silk out of raw silk, by means of ingenious machinery, which is

In the year 1759, the year preceding the death of George II., the public revenues produced the following sums:—

Customs	-	-	-	£1,985,376
Excise (including annual malt)				3,887,349
Stamps	-	-	-	263,207
Incidents	-	-	-	650,000
				<u>6,785,932</u>
Land taxes, 4s. given for	-	-		£2,000,000
Deduct deficiencies as per account 1760				262,392—1,737,608
				<u>£8,523,540</u>
Total	-	-		

erected in the town of Derby, the model of which is preserved in the Tower of London, for which important and useful discovery he received a reward of £14,000; *second*, £5,000 to Mrs. Stephen for discovering a remedy for the stone, in the year 1738; *third*, £3,000 to Thomas Stephen for discovering the proper mode of making pot-ash,—making in the whole £22,000.

(M) In the year 1756, £3,000 was granted for defraying the expence of a monument to Captain Cornwall, who died fighting gallantly in the service of his country; a man who preferred fame to fortune.

(N) After the rebellion in 1745, the attention of government was directed to the Hereditary Jurisdictions in Scotland, by which the chieftains of the different clans under the feudal system enjoyed a kind of paramount power over the persons and property of their vassals, which, while independently of the odious tyranny which it generated, created an influence dangerous to the state. It became therefore a desideratum with government to destroy this power, which was effected by the purchase of the hereditary jurisdictions and privileges which these barons claimed, at the sum of £152,037. In consequence of which these feudal rights were abolished, and the hereditary office of Sheriff and Supreme Judge of the District, which these chieftains exercised, merged in the sovereign, who exercises the functions by sheriffs depute appointed by the crown.

(O) When the estates of the rebel lords and other chieftains, engaged in the rebellion in Scotland in 1745, were forfeited to the crown, they were found to be greatly incumbered by debts and securities; to discharge which parliament paid, anno 1759 and 1760, £72,410,—and afterwards £110,553 in the succeeding reign.

(P) The Extraordinary Expences of the Mint during this reign, in addition to the ordinary charges of £7,000 per annum, amounted in thirty-three years to £231,000.

(Q) The Extra-Expence amounted to £31,364.

(R) *Horned Cattle* £208,123. This grant was made at different times in the course of this reign for the purpose of preventing the spreading of an infectious distemper among the horned cattle, in consequence of some infected hides which had been imported from Holland, where above 500,000 cows, worth at least five millions sterling, perished in the space of twenty years.

(S) During this reign, parliament granted to the Foundling Hospital in the metropolis the sum of £182,277.

(T) The fatal catastrophe which laid Lisbon almost in ruins, in the year 1755, called forth the commiseration and benevolence of parliament as soon as the intelligence arrived, when £100,000 was unanimously voted for the relief of the unfortunate sufferers. Previous to this period it is, perhaps, the only instance of such extensive liberality from one state to another; although this country, highly to its honor, has since manifested a similar liberality to relieve sufferers in consequence of the ravages of war in various other instances, not only by parlia-

The peace establishment at the conclusion of this reign may be thus stated :—

The Civil List	-	-	£836,000
The Navy	-	-	900,000
The Army	-	-	900,000
The Ordnance	-	-	80,000
Miscellaneous expences			50,000
			<u>£2,766,000</u>

mentary grants, but by private benevolence ; and what renders the boon more meritorious, Great Britain stands alone, as the only nation in Europe, who has administered to the distresses of foreigners both at home and abroad.

(U) In the course of this reign, it was found expedient to purchase the Charter Lands, Forts, &c. belonging to the Royal African Company, to defray which expence, and towards the maintenance of the British Forts on the coast of Africa £420,173 was granted by parliament.

(V) The expence, which this country has incurred on account of its colonies in America, is hardly to be credited. It has already been stated that, as far back as the reign of James I., the sum of £29,000 was raised by lotteries for the purpose of establishing a colony in Virginia. The war in 1739 may be said to have originated from the clamours of the colonists, and their resentment against Spain for preventing their intercourse with the colonies of that nation. The war in 1755 would scarcely have taken place, had it not been from a desire on the part of the Mother Country to protect the colonists against the intrigues of the French and the incursions of the savages. The war 1755 was purely American, undertaken with a view to preserve the integrity of an empire raised by British capital, and with a genuine intention to promote the happiness of the people.

In 1729 the sum of £22,500 was voted by parliament to the proprietors of Carolina, that the inhabitants of that province might enjoy all the blessings of liberty and independence. In 1741 parliament voted £20,000 for the relief of the sufferers by a great fire at Charlestown. The expences of Georgia during this reign amounted to £117,110, and those of Nova Scotia to £637,972. The sum of £899,842 was voted at different times to the provinces in America towards encouraging them, during the seven years war, to exert themselves with vigour for their own protection, and in support of His Majesty's rights. The aggregate of the sums granted during this reign extends to £1,697,424.

(W) Miscellaneous expences £25,496, granted in 1730, 1741, 1754, and 1759, viz.

1730. For the purchase of the Wardenship of the Fleet Prison	£2,500
1741. To the sufferers by the failure of Mr. Henry Popple	8,716
1754. For the office of Marshal of the Marshalsea Prison	5,200
For rebuilding the Marshalsea Prison	7,800
1759. To Dr. Long for discharging a mortgage on an estate devised for the endowment of a Professorship at Cambridge	1,280
	<u>£25,496</u>

(X) Money paid pursuant to Addresses £25,000. The mode of making good to His Majesty the money voted pursuant to addresses from the commons was first introduced in the year 1758. In this manner £25,000 was granted during this reign. It was principally intended for the expence of printing the journals, which has been the means of rendering accessible much useful information.

The reign of George II. is distinguished by two wars:—The first commenced anno 1739, and was concluded by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748,—the second began in 1755, and was terminated by the peace of Paris in 1763.

Expences of the first war of eight years, 1739 to 1748.

Eight years Land tax at 4s. in the pound	-	£16,000,000
Eight years Malt	- - - - -	6,000,000
Taken out of the Sinking Fund	- - - - -	7,800,000
		29,800,000
Deduct eight years expence in time of peace	-	14,720,000
		15,080,000
Add the public debt contracted	- - - - -	31,333,689
Total expence of the war 1739		£46,418,689

The war with Spain lasted about four years, and the extraordinary expences which it occasioned may be estimated at £3,000,000 a year, or £12,000,000 in all. The remaining four years of more general hostilities cost about £8,500,000 per annum, or £34,000,000. Except the honor of supporting the House of Austria when on the brink of destruction, and the capture or destruction of a considerable part of the Navy of France,—the nation gained no acquisitions by which any adequate indemnification was obtained.

Expences of the second War, commonly called the seven years War.

The sums voted by parliament, for the support of this, commenced in the year 1754 and continued until the year 1767, before the expences were finally ascertained and wound up, and amounted to

	- - - - -	£150,442,820
Deduct the peace establishment at £2,797,916 for fourteen years	-	39,170,824
Net sum applicable to the war	-	£111,271,996

This war, however, having only lasted seven years, the expence amounted on an average to £15,895,999 per annum. The extraordinary expences of France in supporting this war have been stated to amount to £49,702,535.

By the peace of Paris in 1763, which terminated this war, the province of Canada and its dependencies in North America, and the islands of Dominica, St. Vincent,

Grenada, and Tobago were ceded to this country, which, from the extent of the British conquests and the great sacrifices of blood and treasure, have been considered as a very inadequate indemnification.

The reign of his present Majesty George III., in financial history, forms so important an æra of the British Empire, and embraces objects so extensive and multifarious in fiscal economy, that it becomes necessary to make it the subject of a separate chapter.

The science of finance was little known or understood in the early periods of the British history. In the reign of Elizabeth it began to attract the notice of the able and intelligent ministers of that period. Under the dynasty of the House of Stuart its progress was slow, and not a little disturbed by the troubles which afflicted the nation in the reigns of the three last monarchs of this race; nor does it appear from the financial measures of the ministers of William III. after the revolution, that they discovered any profound knowledge in the science of finance, or of the nature and extent of the resources of the country. Several of the taxes, proposed and abandoned in this reign, were certainly such as would be considered, at the present period, as highly impolitic and injudicious; nor were some of those, which were even proposed by the able ministers of queen Anne, such as evinced an accurate knowledge of the true principles of finance.

After the accession of the House of Hanover, the British constitution assumed a settled form. Its organization became complete, and its maturity was manifested by a strict adherence to the principles, which formed the equilibrium between the three branches of the legislature. From this period, the ministers of the crown devoted more and more attention to the science of finance; but until the reign of his present Majesty, George III., measures had never been pursued, calculated fully to develop the sources of revenue, which the pressure of the times rendered available in this reign to an extent that has astonished all Europe.

When the revenues, which the succeeding chapter discloses, are compared with those of the four preceding reigns since the revolution, it will be found that *millions* have been raised, particularly during the last fifteen years, with much greater facility than *thousands* could be obtained during even the reign of His present Majesty's immediate predecessor, and even with more ease than one third of the sum could be obtained during the first thirty years of this reign.

Nothing can be adduced as a stronger proof of the rapid advance of the country, in the accumulation of wealth, than the financial operations, during the greater part of the two wars of the French revolution, from 1793 to 1813. During this period, chiefly under the guidance of a most enlightened and able minister, the science of finance appears to have advanced nearly to a height almost approaching perfection. It is not, however, meant to be insinuated that mistakes were not committed, or that, on some occasions, perhaps, measures might not have been pursued better adapted to the objects which were to be attained.

The principles of a science may be well understood, where the judgement employed in giving effect to these principles may sometimes be defective. This has ever been the case, and while mankind are themselves so imperfect, it will continue to be manifested as long as states and kingdoms exist. The greatest acquirements, the most profound knowledge, and the most splendid talents must yield to the infirmities of human nature.

When the progress of the revenue, however, under the different kings of England is considered; the tyranny and arbitrary exactions, extortions, and oppressions, to which the people were subjected, and the long period which elapsed before the liberties of the subject were clearly ascertained and secured, it will be admitted that the æra of the last and the present century have, in the science of finance, been far superior to any that preceded them.

CHAPTER VI.

ON THE PUBLIC INCOME AND PUBLIC EXPENDITURE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, FROM THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE REIGN OF HIS PRESENT MAJESTY GEORGE III. IN 1760 TO 1813.

General Observations on the Wars since the commencement of this Reign.—Relative situation of Great Britain and the other Nations of Continental Europe with respect to France.—Extent and magnitude of the present War.—The whole Commerce of the Eastern and Western World concentrated in Great Britain and Ireland.—Accumulated Expences of the Nation in consequence of more than Thirty Years' warfare.—Notwithstanding the Wars, rapid increase of the resources of the Country.—Income of England at the Union in Queen Anne's Reign £5,691,803, increased to £64,979,960 for Great Britain and Ireland on 5th January 1813.—Public Income during Fifty-three Years of his present Majesty's Reign, arising from the Land and Malt Taxes, the Customs, Excise, Stamps, Assessed Taxes, and Miscellaneous Duties.—Loans for the same period.—Benefits derived from the War in disclosing the Power and Resources of the People.—Public Expenditure in the Reign of George III., comprising the Civil List, Expences of the Navy, Army, Ordnance, and Barrack Department, Civil Establishments in North America, American Loyalists, British West India Islands, British Settlements in Africa, Convicts, Police Establishments, Law Charges, Expences of the Mint, Public Buildings, Roads, Bridges, Canals, Harbours, &c. Parliamentary Expences, Public Rewards, Compensations for Losses, and Grants for the Relief of British Subjects in Distress, Board of Agriculture, Vaccine Institution, Veterinary College, Ecclesiastical Expences, Relief to the suffering Clergy and Laity of France, and the Inhabitants of Russia and Portugal, &c. Charges of Management of the National Debt and other Expences paid to the Bank of England, Loans and to defray Military Expences paid to the East India Company, Interest on Exchequer Bills.—Public Funerals.—Public Monuments.—Pensions, &c. for Public Services, and Grants for Miscellaneous Purposes.—Civil Government of Scotland.—Civil Government of Ireland.—General Reflections on the National Income and Expenditure of the present Reign.

GEORGE III.

HIS present Majesty George III. ascended the throne on the 25th October, 1760. This long reign, extending at this time to a period of fifty-three years, exhibits a train of events, which from their nature and extraordinary results cannot fail to interest and astonish posterity. The war of contending factions, which so greatly disturbed the tranquillity of the early part of this reign, was succeeded by the insurrections in the American colonies, which ultimately severed thirteen provinces from the parent state.

After an interval of only about ten years of peace, a still more dreadful scourge has been experienced in consequence of the revolution in France, which, with the exception of a short truce, has involved this country in a war of twenty years, during which period Great Britain has had to contend, at intervals, with all the powers of Europe, who under the influence of France were compelled to become unwilling enemies, vacillating according to the peculiar circumstances under which these nations were placed; until at length from a favourable turn of events they have been placed in a situation to make an election, and have without exception become the allies of Great Britain, and united their arms against the tyrant of France, who for a series of years had ravaged with fire and sword the principal empires, states, and kingdoms of Continental Europe. Terror, and bloodshed, famine, pestilence, plunder, rapine, and devastation, for a time, marked the too successful progress of this destroyer. His success generated in his mind the vain hope of annihilating all the governments of Europe, and of ultimately attaining by treachery and the sword the subjugation of the whole, and the establishment of universal monarchy, on the principles of terror, supported by military despotism.

In this great struggle the British government alone withstood the shock. Although her population and resources were not supposed to extend to one third part of those of the enemy, she embarrassed and ultimately defeated all his projects of insatiable ambition. His whole force at different periods was employed to reduce and destroy the British power; to effect which object he availed himself of the aid of all the maritime and other powers of Europe, whom he had brought under his control. Thus placed in a situation so extremely critical, the spirit and the resources of the nation, to an extent which astonished the world, triumphed over all opposition. It did more. Under the guidance of the ablest statesmen, the greatest naval commanders, and the most intrepid officers and seamen with whom a nation was ever blessed, it reduced all the naval powers of Europe to a non-entity,—manifested by the singular phenomenon of the British flag for a series of years past being only seen upon the ocean.

Limited as the resources of Great Britain are with respect to an army from an inferior population, and unaided by those arbitrary conscriptions which drained France of her most efficient population, which, while it destroyed generation after generation, established a colossal power which for a time terrified all the nations of Continental Europe, Great Britain under every disadvantage encountered the foe in his own element. The British armies met the enemy only to conquer. Highly blest with generals and warriors of the first class in respect to talents, military knowledge, judgement, prudence, and intrepidity, victory constantly marked the steps of the British army, at a time when other nations were panic struck and dismayed. This noble example roused them to active exertions. The charm of invincibility was dissolved by the bravery of the British armies acting under an illustrious leader. The practicability of conquest was clearly ascertained.

At length in the year 1813 the powers of Europe, stimulated by the example of Britain, and assisted by her powerful pecuniary resources, came forward, and happily

succeeded in recovering their lost power and influence, and in rescuing the fairest portion of Europe from the unexampled tyranny and oppression, under which not only its legitimate sovereigns, but the whole of the continental population had groaned for a series of years.

The war, which his present Majesty was thus compelled to carry on, extended to every part of the habitable globe. Not only were all the colonies and territories of France captured in the Eastern and Western Hemisphere, but also those of the nations which had been brought under her power, until at length the whole commerce of the Eastern and Western world centered in the ports of Great Britain and Ireland.

A war of such unexampled extent, comprising gigantic naval and military operations, productive of great and extensive conquests on the continent of India, and employing, as has been already seen, more than one million of naval and military warriors, could not be carried on without incurring an expence, including the subsidies granted to foreign princes, which in point of magnitude and extent greatly exceeds any thing recorded in history; more especially when it is considered, that this expence was in no instance assisted by other countries which became the theatre of war, after the manner of the Ruler of France, but has been defrayed entirely and exclusively from the immediate resources of the British Government.

Under these circumstances it will cease to be matter of wonder, that the actual expences of the nation, during the wars of the reigning monarch, in the civil, military, naval, and other departments, have gradually and progressively risen over and above the peace establishment terminating after the seven years' war in 1763, which then amounted on an average to about £15,895,999 per annum; in the eight years duration of the American war, to an average of £17,396,484 a year; and increased during the nine years of the French revolutionary war to the average of £33,470,857 per annum, and again augmented since 1803 gradually to the enormous sum of £50,416,813 a year at the present time!—in all cases deducting the peace establishment.

The most sanguine mind could not have anticipated such a state of things as the æra, in which we live, has disclosed. The resources of the nation are demonstrated by the facility with which such enormous sums have been raised, while all the different classes of the community appear to possess the same comforts and conveniences, and in many instances to a greater extent among the middling ranks than prevailed at the commencement of his Majesty's reign. At the same time, it is not obvious that the labouring people, notwithstanding the increased price of the articles of the first necessity, fare worse than they did half a century ago. In many instances they fare better, as the resources for more profitable labour are more abundant. The annuitants who cannot or will not by their labour do any thing to assist themselves, must, of course, experience privations which the increased price of subsistence has occasioned.

The progress of the British revenue, during the last century and up to the present period, furnishes the most incontestible proofs of the rapid increase of the

wealth of the country since the union in the reign of Queen Anne, when the income of England amounted to - - - - - £5,691,803

Increase during the succeeding reign - - - - - 1,070,840

Income of George I. - - - - - £6,762,643

Increase during the reign of George II. - - - - - 1,759,897

Income of George II. - - - - - £8,522,540

Increase during 53 years of the reign of George III. - - - - - 56,457,420

Revenue of George III. on the 5th January, 1813 * £64,979,960

**PUBLIC INCOME DURING FIFTY-THREE YEARS OF THE REIGN OF
GEORGE III.**

Since the accession of his present Majesty George III. the revenues of the crown arising from the *Land and Malt Taxes*, the *Customs*, *Excise*, *Stamps*, *Assessed Taxes*, and *Miscellaneous Duties*, have been progressively advancing, as will be seen from the following statement of the net sums which passed into the Exchequer.

Period of Peace.	1761		£ 8,800,000	Period of Peace.	1784		12,905,519
	1762		8,950,000		1785		14,871,520
	1763		9,100,000		1786		15,196,112
	1764		9,250,000		1787		15,360,857
	1765		9,300,000		1788		15,572,971
	1766		9,350,000		1789		15,565,642
	1767		9,200,000		1790		15,986,068
	1768		9,250,000		1791		16,631,000
	1769		9,350,000		1792		19,382,435
	1770		9,510,000		1793		17,674,395
American and French War.	1771		9,650,000	French Revolutionary War.	1794		17,440,809
	1772		9,850,000		1795		17,374,890
	1773		10,066,661		1796		18,243,876
	1774		10,285,673		1797		18,668,925
	1775		10,138,061		1798		20,518,780
	1776		10,265,405		1799		23,607,945
	1777		10,604,013		1800		29,604,008
	1778		10,732,405		1801		28,085,829
	1779		11,192,141	Peace. War with	1802		28,221,183
	1780		12,255,214		1803		38,401,738
	1781		12,454,936		1804		49,335,978
	1782		12,593,297		1805		49,652,471
	1783		11,962,718		1806		53,698,124

* See Table, No. 5, annexed to this Chapter.

AND PUBLIC EXPENDITURE.

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Taxes from 1761 to 1806 brought over £786,111,799

France and the other Powers of Europe.	1807	58,902,291
	1808	61,524,113
	1809	63,042,746
	1810	66,029,349
	1811	64,427,371
	1812	63,327,432

Total Amount of taxes, comprising the sums of money paid into the Exchequer from the year 1761 to the year 1812, both years inclusive } £1,163,365,101

Loans from the year 1760 to 1788, including part of the seven years' war, and the whole of the American war } 142,233,818
 Loans from 1793 to 1802 inclusive, borrowed during the French Revolutionary War } 223,015,718
 Loans from 1803 to 1813 inclusive, borrowed during the present war, commencing in 1803 } 228,826,625
 Exclusive of the surplus of the unfunded debt. £1,757,441,262

‡ Loans—By 1 Geo. III. Cap. 7 . . .	£12,000,000
1 Geo. III. Cap. 20 . . .	1,500,000
2 Geo. III. Cap. 10 . . .	12,000,000
3 Geo. III. Cap. 9 . . .	3,483,553
3 Geo. III. Cap. 12 . . .	3,500,000
4 Geo. III. Cap. 25 . . .	1,000,000
5 Geo. III. Cap. 23 . . .	1,500,000
6 Geo. III. Cap. 39 . . .	1,500,000
7 Geo. III. Cap. 24 . . .	1,500,000
8 Geo. III. Cap. 31 . . .	1,900,000
16 Geo. III. Cap. 34 . . .	2,000,000
17 Geo. III. Cap. 46 . . .	5,500,000
18 Geo. III. Cap. 22 . . .	6,000,000
19 Geo. III. Cap. 18 . . .	7,000,000
20 Geo. III. Cap. 16 . . .	12,000,000
21 Geo. III. Cap. 14 . . .	12,000,000
22 Geo. III. Cap. 8 . . .	13,500,000
23 Geo. III. Cap. 35 . . .	12,000,000
24 Geo. III. Cap. 10 and 39	12,879,341
25 Geo. III. Cap. 33 and 71	10,990,651
Bank of England by 4 Geo. III. Cap. 25	110,000
From the East India Company at different times up to 1788 . . .	3,200,000
Difference between the unfunded debt and other claims, as that debt stood anno 1760 and 1788 . . .	5,170,273
	£142,233,818

Loans, including Navy and Exchequer Bills funded and Irish and Imperial Loans:—

1793 . . .	£4,500,000
1794 . . .	12,907,452
1795 . . .	19,490,646
1796 . . .	31,726,796
1797 . . .	54,112,842
1798 . . .	17,000,000
1799 . . .	18,500,000
1800 . . .	20,500,000
1801 . . .	28,000,000
1802 . . .	25,000,000

Deduct Irish Loans . £13,000,000 231,737,718
 Deduct Austrian Loans . 6,222,000— 19,222,000

Add surplus of Unfunded Debt . 10,500,000
 £223,015,718

Loans from 1803 to 1813:—	1803 . . .	£14,000,000
	1804 . . .	14,500,000
	1805 . . .	22,500,000
	1806 . . .	20,000,000
	1807 . . .	12,200,000
	1808 . . .	10,500,000
	1809 . . .	14,600,000
	1810 . . .	12,000,000
	1811 . . .	16,981,300
	1812 . . .	26,789,625
	1813 . . .	64,755,700

Total, exclusive of the surplus of the unfunded debt. £228,826,625

When, through the medium of the facts thus disclosed, the revenue of Great Britain and Ireland is contemplated, and when with these facts are coupled the gloomy prospects held out in the writings of men, in many respects possessing considerable knowledge and talents, during the last century predicting the absolute ruin of the nation, when the burdens imposed upon the people were not one twentieth part of what they are at present, and when the national debt did not exceed a tenth part of its present amount; how much would these gloomy pamphleteers be astonished were they to rise from the dust, and contemplate the events which have so completely falsified their predictions.

It must however be acknowledged, that the resources of the nation have greatly exceeded the expectations of the most sanguine. They have extended far beyond the calculations even of the most enlightened statesmen whom the country has produced, demonstrating at the same time, that although much is known, there is still something to learn in the science of finance.

The pressure of the occasion has done much, by urging statesmen intrusted with financial affairs to try bold experiments, producing results, which but for the difficulties of the crisis would perhaps never have been disclosed to the world.

The pressure of a war, unexampled in point of expence, has led to these discoveries. It has brought into public view the latent property of the country. It has enabled the Parliament to fathom and measure the wealth of the people. It has disclosed to the people themselves the power and the resources they collectively possess, which but for the peculiar features of the war, and the perils which it has in its progress held out, would never have been known, and could never have been believed.

Having briefly stated the national income during fifty-three years of the reign of his present Majesty, it becomes necessary to shew in what manner these immense sums have been applied to the public service. Considerable labour and pains have been bestowed in collecting the facts and the details from the most authentic sources, to which great difficulties have been opposed from the manner in which the public accounts have been kept, and from the intricacy arising from the nature of the British connection with Ireland in their respective financial establishments.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE IN THE REIGN OF GEORGE III.

CIVIL LIST.

The first branch of the national expenditure comprises those disbursements which relate to the personal expences of the Sovereign, his Queen and Royal Family, which taken singly is comparatively small; but as it includes the salaries and expences attached to the department of the King's household, as established in ancient times as

necessary to the splendour of a court, and consistent with the dignity of the nation, and as it further comprises the original salaries of the Lord Chancellor, the Judges of the land, the Ambassadors, and Ministers of his Majesty and their attendants sent to different foreign courts with all diplomatic expences, the salaries of the Board of Treasury, the Ministers of the Crown, and numerous other salaries, pensions, and expences defrayed from what is called the Civil List, or the fund considered particularly under the control of the Sovereign, the amount upon the whole is very considerable.

Previous to his Majesty's accession to the throne, certain specific revenues were rendered applicable to this branch of the public expenditure; but these were relinquished, and in lieu thereof an annual sum of £800,000 was granted by Parliament, subject to an annuity of £50,000 a year to the Princess Dowager of Wales, £25,000 a year to William Duke of Cumberland, and £12,000 to the Princess Amelia.

Afterwards on the 5th January, 1767, new burthens were placed on the Civil List, namely £8000 a year to each of the King's brothers, the Dukes of York, Gloucester, and Cumberland.—One hundred and twenty thousand pounds were also paid out of this fund as the marriage portions of the Princesses Augusta and Matilda, his Majesty's sisters, which with other unforeseen expences rendered the sum of £800,000 year inadequate, and occasioned a very considerable deficiency, which was made good by votes of Parliament in 1769 and 1777, amounting together to £1,133,511. In the month of April 1777 the Civil List revenue was augmented to £900,000 per annum, but even this in consequence of new expences was not found sufficient; since besides the sum of £1,133,511 already mentioned, £60,000 were voted in 1784, £30,000 in 1786, besides £30,000 more in Exchequer bills on the Civil List paid off. By an act also of the 15th of his Majesty, Buckingham House was settled on the Queen, which had been previously purchased for £28,000, to which is to be added £72,627 more expended from Lady-day 1762 to Christmas 1774 in enlarging, embellishing, and improving what is now called the Queen's Palace, making in the whole £100,627. This expenditure, instigated by the factions of the day, produced a great clamour in the country; and in the succeeding session numerous petitions were presented to the House, praying for a reform in this branch of the national expenditure.

On the 11th February 1780, Mr. Burke brought in his celebrated bill for the better regulation of his Majesty's Civil Establishment, prefaced by one of the most brilliant and splendid orations ever delivered in any public assembly.

At this period the factions in the state ran high; and the clamour of the day was against the increased influence of the crown, which made a considerable impression on the minds of the people, and no less on the then Members of the House of Commons, insomuch that on the 6th of April 1780, on the motion of Mr. Dunning, they came to the following singular resolution, carried by a majority of 113.—

- 1st. That it is necessary to declare that the influence of the crown has increased,—is increasing,—and ought to be diminished.
- 2d. That it is competent for Parliament to examine and correct the abuses in the expenditure of the Civil List, as well as in every other branch of the public revenue, whenever it shall appear expedient to the wisdom of Parliament so to do.

In a free government like Great Britain, periods will arise when the circumstances of the times will warp and betray the minds even of the most enlightened statesmen into erroneous opinions, always however favourable to the liberty of the subject. It must however be evident that the control of Parliament is paramount to every thing, while for a century since the accession of the Brunswick family to the throne no attempt has ever been made to abridge its powers, or to govern the nation on any other principle than that which was established at the Revolution, nor can the crown be said to have acquired even the shadow of influence beyond what the adventitious patronage arising from the wars might have created, and which must necessarily attach to the executive power. This patronage was more than counter-balanced by the increasing restraints on the executive government, which no act of the sovereign has ever opposed.*

ROYAL FAMILY.

In the year 1785 the Disbursements of the Civil List stood thus :

Class 1. The pensions and allowances to the Royal Family	£192,000
2. Salaries to the Lord Chancellor, Judges, &c.	32,955
3. Salaries and Allowances to Ministers sent to Foreign Courts	75,543
4. Approved bills for his Majesty's service	138,641
5. Menial servants of the King's household	89,799
6. Pensions and compensations for suppressed officers	125,757
7. Various other salaries paid out of the Civil List	82,187
8. Salaries of the Board of Treasury	13,822
9. Occasional payments	147,764
Carried over	£898,468

* It may be fairly doubted, whether the augmentation of patronage, unavoidably arising from the increase of the Naval, Military, and Civil offices created during the present reign, has at all added to the influence of the crown; since it appears that during the present reign 416 officers were reduced, the salaries or emoluments of whom amounted to £275,748, and only 197 added (of whom 184 are in the Barrack Department) amounting to £77,000, making upon the whole of official establishments unconnected with the management of the revenue a reduction of 219 officers and a saving of £198,478. See *Observations on the Public Expenditure and the Influence of the Crown*, by the Right Hon. George Rose. 1810.

	Brought over	£898,468
To cancel Exchequer bills for payment of arrears on the Civil List, but which were since discharged by Parliament . . }		50,000

£948,468

Thus we discover how small a proportion of this fund applies personally to the Sovereign and his family. At this period (namely in 1788) the average expences of the Civil List, from the commencement of his Majesty's reign, were within a trifle of £900,000 a year,—as the following statement will shew:—

The original Civil List revenue, from his Majesty's accession to Michaelmas 1788 at £800,000 a year	£22,400,000
The additional £100,000 from 5th January 1777 (12 years)	1,200,000
Additional income to William Duke of Cumberland for five years, £25,000	125,000
To the Dukes of York, Gloucester, and Cumberland (the King's brothers) paid them out of the aggregate fund	360,000
The separate establishment of the Prince of Wales	60,000
Discharging the debts of the Prince of Wales, and for works at Carleton House	181,000
Marriage portions to the King's sisters, consorts of the Duke of Brunswick and King of Denmark	120,000
Civil List debts paid by a vote in Parliament in 1769	£513,511
Idem Idem in 1777	620,000
Idem Idem in 1784	60,000
Idem Idem in 1786	30,000
Exchequer bills due on the Civil List paid off in 1786	180,000—
	1,403,511
	*£25,849,511

*Besides the £800,000, and in seven years more £900,000, allowed to his Majesty to defray all the expences of the Civil List, and settled upon the crown at the commencement of his reign in lieu of the produce of certain duties received by his predecessors, he is supposed to have received in addition—

An annual revenue from Ireland about	£90,000
Idem from Wales	10,000
Idem from Lancaster	20,000
Idem from Cornwall	25,677
4½ per cent. duty from the Leeward Islands	50,000
Coal pits at Louisburg	5,000
Interest of debts due the King	150,000
Income from Hanover	100,000

£450,677

DD 2

A small proportion of these sums, if any (some of which may be exaggerated) ever was received by the King. They were given away in pensions by the Minister of the day, except the King's property in Hanover, with which the nation has nothing to do.

Although Mr. Burke brought in his bill in 1780 for the better regulation of his Majesty's Civil List, it was not until 1782 that any effectual step was taken to reduce the expences. Mr. Burke had calculated on a saving of £75,343, which it was then supposed would detach from the influence of the crown nine members of the House of Lords and thirty in the House of Commons. But after a full investigation the savings actually obtained (by the Act of the 22d Geo. III. Cap. 82) were under £50,000, from which £18,000 a year fell to be deducted for compensations to various individuals, whose offices were suppressed, and who were entitled to compensation. And the public has since been under the necessity of discharging the arrears for which these savings were appropriated. In other respects, however, considerable advantages were derived from this act. The payments of the Civil List expences have been arranged in a manner which will probably prevent any material excess in future. Pensions (except in particular cases specified in the act) are restricted to a sum not exceeding £95,000 a year; and considerable advantages have arisen from the rules which are established respecting the distribution of the secret service money, with which the crown is entrusted.

By the 18th Geo. III. Cap. 31, £60,000 per annum were settled on his Majesty's sons, and £30,000 a year to the Princesses of the family, payable on the King's demise, together with £8,000 a year to the son, and £4,000 to the daughter of the Duke of Gloucester, commencing at his death.

Since the reign of William III. whose income and expenditure were ascertained with an uncommon degree of minuteness, the public accounts until of late years have been rendered intricate, and in many instances confused, in consequence of the sums voted often proving deficient, as in the case of the Land and Malt Tax, and by sums of money first appropriated to one purpose, and afterwards transferred to another. The perplexity, intricacy, and confusion, which this practice generated, suggested the measure of appointing a Select Committee in 1797, with power "*to form and digest a plan for controlling the public expenditure, and to report upon the best means of obtaining a diminution thereof.*"

The measures recommended by this committee have greatly improved the mode of stating the public accounts, although new occurrences since that period have rendered these accounts susceptible of still greater accuracy and precision. And hence the necessity of a new revision, calculated to produce such a simplified and methodized detail as might be comprehended at once by every reader.

The income and the expenditure of the royal family, from 1786 to 1802, may be ascertained with a greater degree of accuracy than any other branch of the public expenditure, since a Committee of the House Commons entered fully upon this subject in a

report to the House, consisting of 73 folio pages, from which the following statement is made of the charges of the Civil List for 16 years prior to the 5th January 1802.—

CLASS.	Annual Average expende.			Total for Sixteen Years.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
1. Royal Family in all its branches	209,988	15	0	3,359,828	7	10 $\frac{1}{4}$
2. Great Officers of State	33,279	10	0	532,472	0	1
3. Foreign Ministers	80,526	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,288,416	3	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
4. Tradesmens Bills	174,697	13	11	2,795,163	2	3 $\frac{3}{4}$
5. Menial Servants of the Household	92,424	6	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,478,789	5	8
6. Pensions	114,817	6	11	1,837,077	10	6
7. Salaries to various Officers	76,013	18	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,216,222	17	0 $\frac{3}{4}$
8. Commissioners of the Treasury	14,455	14	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	231,191	13	10 $\frac{3}{4}$
9. Occasional Payments	203,964	6	0 $\frac{1}{4}$	3,263,428	16	4
	£. 1,000,167	9	6	16,002,679	17	0

It has been already stated, that the total annual grant to defray the charges of his present Majesty's civil government amounted to £ 800,000, which was afterwards in 1777 increased to £900,000. The increased expence therefore beyond

this sum appears in 16 years to be - - - - - £ 1,602,679 15 0 $\frac{1}{2}$

To which is to be added the arrears of the former civil list debt - 192,500 0 0

£ 1,795,179 15 0 $\frac{1}{2}$

Deduct from this amount various sums applied in aid
of the civil list - - - - - £ 634,036 0 0

Deduct various balances remaining in the Exchequer
(according to the Report, page 58) including } 265,174 8 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ — 899,210 8 10 $\frac{1}{2}$
sums due by various persons - - - - -

£ 895,969 6 2

Add various sums advanced out of the civil list, according to the }
Parliamentary Report, page 50 - - - - - 94,084 0 0

Net Balance - - - - - £990,053 6 2

Which sum was voted by Parliament, thereby discharging all deficiencies up to the 5th January 1802. This excess is the less surprising when it is considered that, in consequence of the war, which was not calculated upon in 1788, a much greater expence was incurred than would have taken place in 16 years of continued peace.

The actual Sums paid to all the branches of the Royal Family, on the 5th January 1802, stood as follows, viz.

		<i>per Annum.</i>
From the Civil List.	His Majesty's privy Purse - - -	£ 60,000
	Her Majesty the Queen - - -	58,000
	His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales -	60,000
	Her Royal Highness the Princess Charlotte of Wales - - -	6,000
	The Duchess Dowager of Cumberland -	4,000—£188,000
From the Consolidated Fund.	His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales -	£65,000
	His Royal Highness the Duke of Gloucester -	17,000
	The Duke of York - -	14,000
	The Duchess of York - -	4,000
	The Dukes of Clarence, Kent, Cumberland, Cambridge, and Sussex, each	60,000
	£12,000, since augmented to £18,000 each	
		===== 160,000
		£ 348,000

Since the year 1802, and particularly since the commencement of the regency, a new arrangement has taken place, by which considerable alterations have been made in the civil list establishment. By an Act passed in the 44th year of his Majesty an addition of £ 60,000 was added to the civil list, making the whole £ 960,000.

By an Act of the 52d of his Majesty, Cap. 6. Parliament granted to his Majesty during his indisposition, over and above the several sums of £ 800,000, £ 100,000, and £60,000 granted by the 1st, 17th, and 44th of the present reign, the further sum of £70,000 and £ 50,000 transferred by the Prince of Wales to the civil list, thereby increasing the civil list revenue to £ 1,080,000. By the 52d of his Majesty, Cap. 7. £ 100,000 were granted to his Royal Highness the Prince Regent, to enable him to defray the expences of assuming the royal authority. By the 52d. of his Majesty Cap. 8. £10,000 a year were granted to the Queen to defray the increased expence to which her Majesty

may be exposed in consequence of his Majesty's indisposition, also £100,000 for his Majesty's present establishment. By the 52d. of his Majesty, Cap. 57, the sum of £36,000 is granted to the four Princesses, Augusta Sophia, Elizabeth, Mary, and Sophia, or the survivors or survivor of them, &c. to be paid out of the consolidated fund. That part of the King's Household and servants not allotted by parliament to his Majesty is transferred to the establishment of the Prince Regent, together with the civil list revenue, which is charged with the £100,000 a year to the King, £10,000 a year to the Queen, and all the former expences of his Majesty's civil government.

Annuities paid to the different branches of the Royal Family out of the Consolidated Fund in 1813, not included in the Civil List.

His Royal Highness the Prince Regent	£.65,000	Duke of Gloucester	£14,000
Duke of York	14,000	Princess Sophia of	
Duke of Clarence	18,000	Gloucester	7,000
Duke of Kent	18,000	Duchess of York	4,000
Duke of Cumberland	18,000	Duke of Brunswick	7,000
Duke of Sussex	18,000	House of Orange	16,000
Duke of Cambridge	18,000		=====
Princess Charlotte	7,000		£ 48,000
Princess Augusta Sophia	9,000		=====
Princess Elizabeth	9,000		
Princess Mary	9,000		
Princess Sophia	9,000		
	=====		
	£212,000		
	=====		

The other principal expences of the nation are those which attach to *the Navy, the Transport Department, the Army, the Ordnance*, and Miscellaneous disbursements.

NAVAL EXPENCES DURING HIS MAJESTY'S REIGN.

The Naval charges of this reign have of course varied, according to the periods of war or peace. The progressive and enormous increase of this branch of expenditure must be attributed to two causes:—The vast increase of the naval armaments, which became necessary in consequence of the French revolutionary war, and the whole of the naval powers of Europe being at one time leagued against this country, and still more to the vast augmentation of the price of all articles necessary for building, equipping, and victualling ships of war, in some instances double, and in many others treble and quadruple what such supplies actually cost at the commencement of his Majesty's reign.

The Naval Charges of this Reign may be thus stated :

1761. £5,072,602	War.	1771. £ 2,967,409	Peace.	1781. £ 8,603,884	War.	1791. £ 4,008,405	Peace.	1801. £15,857,037	Peace.
1762. 5,688,012		1772. 1,813,164		1782. 7,095,228		1792. 1,985,482		1802. 13,833,573	
1763. 1,975,661		1773. 1,833,573		1783. 6,197,832		1793. 3,971,915		1803. 10,211,378	
1764. 2,053,200		1774. 2,052,917		1784. 3,086,269		1794. 5,525,331		1804. 12,350,606	
1765. 2,886,876	Peace.	1775. 1,599,453	War.	1785. 2,054,507	Peace.	1795. 6,315,523	War.	1805. 15,035,630	War.
1766. 2,680,683		1776. 3,092,967		1786. 2,381,526		1796. 11,883,693		1806. 15,864,341	
1767. 1,400,409		1777. 4,053,666		1787. 2,286,000		1797. 13,033,673		1807. 17,400,337	
1768. 1,238,883		1778. 4,779,151		1788. 2,236,000		1798. 13,449,388		1808. 18,317,547	
1769. 1,828,057		1779. 4,106,374		1789. 2,328,570		1799. 13,642,000		1809. 19,578,467	
1770. 1,580,467		1780. 6,777,632		1790. 2,483,636		1800. 13,619,079		1810. 19,829,434	
								1811. 20,935,894	
								1812. 20,442,149	
								1813. 21,212,011	

To which is to be added the Navy Debt funded by 3 Geo. III. 7 years War £ 3,483,553

Idem 5 Geo. III. . Idem . . . 1,500,000

Idem 24 Geo. III. American War } 17,869,993

Idem 25 Geo. III. . Idem } 28,267,381

Idem { 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, } French Revolutionary War. } 28,267,381

Idem { 40, 41, and 42 Geo. III. } } 65,520,935

Idem { 45, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, } French War. } 65,520,935

Idem { 52, and 53 Geo. III. } } 65,520,935

£116,641,862

The expences of the Transport Service, Sick and Hurt Establishment, and Prisoners of War, are included in the naval disbursements of each year;† they are so blended together that they cannot be accurately ascertained under their respective heads. The aggregate expence for 12 years, from 1801 to 1812 both inclusive, amounts to £29,221,524; and will admit of nearly the following division:—

For Transports, Prisoners of War, including Clothing, Medicines, &c. £23,877,209

Sick and wounded Seamen in his Majesty's Service 5,344,315

£29,221,524

The expences attached to the naval department appear excessive when compared with preceding wars, and even with the early part of the French revolutionary war; but in addition to the great increase of the prices already mentioned, the vast number of ships in commission beyond what has been employed in former wars, not only for offensive warfare but to defend the country against the threatened invasion of the enemy at

† A considerable saving to the public has accrued from placing under the management of the Transport Board the purchase of certain stores, which were formerly furnished under contracts with the Treasury. Since the business of the prisoners of war has been placed under this establishment fifteen Depots at home and four abroad have been suppressed, producing a saving of £ 14,000 a year. A further saving of £ 161,000 per annum has arisen from an arrangement with respect to the food of the prisoners at home, and £ 23,300 abroad, making a total saving of £ 198,300. In the sick and hurt department, where the expenditure was £ 536,200 in 1804 and 1805, only amounted to £ 505,600 in 1807 and 1808—annual saving £ 15,300. In conveying troops to and from Ireland there has been an annual saving of £ 9,400. Total saving £ 223,300. See observations by the Right Hon. Geo. Rose, 1810.

one period very formidable when in combination with all the naval powers in Europe is taken into consideration, it must be admitted that under all circumstances, such extensive armaments which, under the direction of our naval commanders, have not only rendered the navies of Europe almost a non-entity, but have placed Great Britain on the highest pinnacle of power could not be supported without incurring a very enormous expence.

The expeditions against the enemy's colonies and settlements in distant regions, and the protection of numerous commercial fleets, and of the territories and dependencies of the crown situate in every part of the globe, rendered a numerous navy not only indispensable, but also occasioned a vast expence in tear and wear, greatly augmented in all instances, where repairs and equipments are to be renewed abroad, and, in distant countries, where naval stores and provisions are to be obtained only at very advanced prices.

It is also to be taken into consideration, that for the greatest part of the present war there has been in commission, refitting, and in ordinary, 261 ships of the line, 36 ships of 50 guns, 264 frigates, 177 sloops, 14 bombs, 172 brigs, 46 cutters, and 64 schooners, navigated and fought by 140,000 seamen and 31,540 marines, independently of the enormous expence of building and repairing ships in the dock-yards at home and abroad, with various other expences attached to this gigantic establishment in hiring transports, maintaining prisoners of war, sick and hurt, &c.

MILITARY EXPENCES

DURING HIS MAJESTY'S REIGN.

The military expences of the present reign are of a magnitude so excessive as almost to exceed credibility, when the population of the united kingdom is taken into consideration, coupled with the supposed resources of the country. Like the navy, the great augmentation of the forces, the enormous rise in the price of military equipments and provisions, joined to the disadvantages arising from the course of exchange with foreign countries will, in a great measure, account for the great increase of the national expence in this department.

During the wars of the present reign, there is scarcely a country in the four quarters of the habitable globe that the troops of Great Britain have not visited, and such are the improvements which have taken place in discipline and equipment, and such the valour and skill which the commanders of the armies of the united kingdom have displayed, that they may now be considered as ranking as high, if not higher than any in Europe; since they have scarcely ever fought but to conquer, although opposed to troops and commanders, who assumed a superiority over all the nations of the world.

The expences incurred in this department have been regularly increasing, as will appear from the following statement of the sums granted by parliament for

MILITARY SERVICES.

War.	1761.	£8,344,030	War.	1775.	£1,597,051	Peace.	1789.	£1,917,062	Peace.	1801.	£12,117,039
	1762.	7,657,205		1776.	3,500,366		1790.	1,609,574		1802.	11,211,795
	1763.	4,593,805		1777.	3,797,632		1791.	2,062,548		1803.	11,786,619
	1764.	2,267,867		1778.	4,333,666		1792.	1,819,460		1804.	19,108,859
Peace.	1765.	1,784,856	War.	1779.	6,013,082	War.	1793.	3,993,715	War.	1805.	18,581,127
	1766.	1,910,413		1780.	6,589,080		1794.	6,641,060		1806.	18,507,518
	1767.	1,537,314		1781.	7,723,912		1795.	11,610,003		1807.	19,875,946
	1768.	1,472,484		1782.	7,645,237		1796.	14,911,899		1808.	19,439,189
Peace.	1769.	1,497,921	Peace.	1783.	5,577,474	War.	1797.	15,488,083	War.	1809.	21,144,770
	1770.	1,547,931		1784.	3,153,191		1798.	12,852,814		1810.	20,337,080
	1771.	1,810,319		1785.	1,689,169		1799.	11,840,000		1811.	21,287,004
	1772.	1,551,428		1786.	1,594,115		1800.	11,941,767		1812.	25,174,756
Peace.	1773.	1,516,402	Peace.	1787.	1,831,069	War.			War.	1813.	33,089,334
	1774.	1,549,720		1788.	1,979,020						

The British army is here to be understood as comprising the whole force of the empire, consisting of *Cavalry, Infantry, Artillery, Engineers, Militia, Yeomanry Cavalry, Sea and Land Fencibles, Volunteers*, and every other description of force, whether natives or foreigners in the pay of Great Britain, excluding only the native troops and the British in the service of the East India Company.

When the military force, at the commencement of the present reign and during the seven years war, is compared with the same species of force paid and maintained by the British Government at this period, the greatest astonishment will be excited at the disparity; since from about 70,000 troops of all descriptions in pay at the former period we now behold an armed force supported at the expence of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland (exclusive of an army in the territories under the management of the East India Company) amounting to 721,987 men, exclusive also of the Portuguese, German, and other troops abroad in the pay of Great Britain, but making no part of the British Military Establishment, although adding considerably to the expence under the head of military services.

Nothing can so forcibly demonstrate the progressive prosperity of the British Empire as the financial resources, which have been thus manifested in supporting a navy and army of such magnitude, and at so enormous an expence,—besides the other charges of government, which have risen almost in the same proportion, as will be more fully explained in the sequel.

ORDNANCE EXPENCES.

The expences incurred in this department, like those of the navy and army, have mounted to an enormous height. From the commencement of the present reign at Michaelmas 1760 to Michaelmas 1788, comprising a period of 28 years, the expences of the Ordnance department, including such Ordnance Debentures as were funded, amounted to £17,079,011, averaging £608,179 yearly. The sums voted since that period, and which are to be added to the amount incurred during the preceding twenty-eight years, are as follows :—

Amount from 1760	} £17,079,011				
to 1788					
1789.	459,444	1796.	£1,954,665	1805.	£4,456,994
1790.	455,872	1797.	1,643,056	1806.	4,328,144
1791.	594,678	1798.	1,303,580	1807.	3,321,216
1792.	422,001	1799.	1,500,000	1808.	3,713,071
1793.	783,776	1800.	1,695,956	1809.	5,311,675
1794.	1,345,008	1801.	1,639,055	1810.	3,819,466
1795.	2,321,010	1802.	1,952,274	1811.	4,352,628
		1803.	1,125,921	1812.	4,620,147
		1804.	3,737,091	1813.	4,464,273

The expences of this department were considerably increased in erecting fortifications and Martello Towers at the different periods of the French war, when an invasion of the country had been threatened by the enemy, while the charges under this head of expenditure have been still more augmented since the commencement of the insurrectionary war in Spain, and the invasion of Portugal by the French. To both these nations immense quantities of arms, artillery, and other ordnance stores have been sent since the year 1808; while to Germany, during the years 1812 and 1813, the supplies furnished to the armies of the allies almost exceed calculation. No pecuniary sacrifice has been spared, which could tend to give energy to their exertions in the general struggle for the emancipation of the continent of Europe, which but for this country would probably have never been effected.

EXPENCES OF THE BARRACK DEPARTMENT.

This expence was little known and scarcely felt previous to the present reign, in consequence of a prevailing jealousy of the troops being separated from the people. The pressure of events, however, and more enlarged views connected with the defence of the country demonstrated the necessity of the measure, as a means not only of improving the discipline and general character of the troops, but also with a view to national economy.

Under this impression, the barrack system has been extended to every part of Great Britain and Ireland; and buildings, including furniture, &c. have cost an average of about £907,656 a year from the year 1796 to 1813 inclusive, making an aggregate of £16,337,819 sterling, and probably about £20,000,000 during the whole of the present reign †. The Barracks in Ireland have also been extremely expensive.

In 1806, there were in Great Britain, Guernsey, Jersey, &c. Barracks for 107,359 men and 10,419 horses, of which sufficient to contain 102,161 men and 8,218 horses are situated where camps must otherwise have been formed; without such accommodation the troops must have been encamped for 160 days. The saving to the public by the Barracks, instead of the camp, is estimated for 160 days at - £ 406,843

The annual saving between keeping men in barracks and quarters
will be in favour of the former - - - - - 61,278

£ 468,121

Total expence of the Barrack Establishment - - - 30,712

Net saving - - - £ 437,409*

Independently of the saving to the public by the Barrack Establishment, much is gained in another point of view from the preservation of the health of the troops by the prevention of those excesses, into which they are betrayed when lodged in common Ale-houses, where the morals of the young soldier are very speedily corrupted in all large towns, and his health not seldom impaired.

† The expences of the Barrack Department during the following years stood thus:—

Great Britain.	Great Britain.	Ireland.	Great Britain.	Ireland.
1796 £ 290,000	Continued £ 4,110,763	£	Continued £9,302,753	£ 2,271,955
1797 737,000	1803 . . 513,440	113,240	1809 . . 579,563	499,857
1798 520,717	1804 . . 1,728,643	455,287	1810 . . 548,481	476,617
1799 622,478	1805 . . 1,309,391	333,069	1811 . . 482,025	500,434
1800 479,334	1806 . . 555,193	458,647	1812 . . 434,441	451,080
1801 633,637	1807 . . 506,237	469,450	1813 . . 330,026	460,587
1802 827,597	1808 . . 579,086	442,262		
Continued £4,110,763	Continued £9,302,753	2,271,955	Great Britain £11,677,289	4,660,530
			Ireland . . 4,660,530	
			Total £16,337,819	

* See a Brief Examination, &c. by the Right Hon. Geo. Rose, (Hatchard 1806.) Appendix, No. 5.

MISCELLANEOUS EXPENDITURE.

Having briefly stated the great branches of the national expenditure, comprising the *Civil List*, the *Navy*, *Army*, and *Ordnance* with their progressive increase since the commencement of His Majesty's reign, it may prove interesting and satisfactory to enter into some detail with respect to the Parliamentary grants for casual and miscellaneous expences to which the government have been exposed, the amount of which will be found to exceed all credibility.

These Grants are arranged under the following heads, viz.—

The expences of the Civil Governments in the Colonies.

Compensations to American Loyalists, including Lands purchased for their use in Vincent's and the Bahamas.

West India Grants for various purposes.

African Grants.

Expences incurred of Convicts.

Public Prosecutions.

Expences incurred in executing the Criminal Law.

Police Expences.

Expences incurred in the Buildings of Somerset House.

Parliamentary Expences.

Foreign and Secret Services.

Contingencies of the Secretary of State's Office, and Expences for Aliens.

Commissioners for examining Public Accounts, and for various purposes.

Ecclesiastical Expences.

Relief of British Subjects in distress.

Public Rewards.

Commercial Expences.

Public Compensations.

Compensations to Individuals for Losses sustained.

Public Roads, Harbours, and Buildings.

Mint Expences for the Coinage of Money.

French Clergy and Laity.

Board of Agriculture.

Veterinary College.

Vaccine Establishment.

Interest on Exchequer Bills.

Bank of England.

East India Company.

Pensions, Rewards, &c. for public services.

Public Funerals, &c.

Public Monuments.

Subsidies and Loans to Foreign Powers.

And various other expences to be hereafter mentioned.

It will be seen in the sequel, that the miscellaneous expences of Government	
from the accession of His Majesty George III. at Michaelmas 1760 to	} £ 9,077,022
Michaelmas 1788, being a period of 28 years	
From Michaelmas 1788 to Michaelmas 1802, being a period of 14 years to	24,744,219
From Michaelmas 1802 to March 1814, inclusive, being a period of 11½ years to	76,118,577
Total	<u>£ 109,939,818</u>

CIVIL ESTABLISHMENTS IN NORTH AMERICA.

The first head of expence relates to the civil governments in North America, which appear to have cost the British Nation the following sums since the commencement of the present reign :—

Rewards and Compensations to the Co-	} £.		
lonies for their assistance in conquer-		472,607	
ing Canada			
Georgia from the Year 1760 to 1776 . .		77,303	
East Florida		105,450	
West Florida		102,311	
		<u> </u>	
			Total.
			£ 757,671
Upper Canada, including £13,800 for Gra-			
tuities to Settlers in that province from 1792 to 1812 inclusive			176,866
Nova Scotia from 1760 to 1788 - £186,565 and from 1789 to 1812 inclusive		£192,308	378,873
New Brunswick Idem 22,356 Idem		111,990	134,346
Cape Breton Idem 10,600 Idem		47,315	57,915
St. John's, now Prince Edward's Island Idem 32,550 Idem		53,988	86,538
Newfoundland Idem 2,365 Idem		45,412	47,777
		<u> </u>	
			<u>£ 1,639,986</u>

In the infancy of all Colonies the fostering hand of the parent state is necessary ; but it is incumbent on the Colonists to ease it of this burthen as soon as their surplus labour, thus stimulated and encouraged, shall render it practicable. It should always be recollected by the Colonists, that the parent state incurs a great expence in their protection ; while without being called upon to participate in the heavy burthens of Great Britain they enjoy in civil liberty, security of property, and the privileges of trade, all the advantages, without a single exception, which attach to His Majesty's subjects in the parent country.

AMERICAN LOYALISTS.

The liberality and generosity of the British nation, extended towards the individuals who adhered or appeared to adhere to the parent country during the unfortunate struggle

which severed thirteen Colonies, which had been fostered by the benevolence of this country for considerably more than a century, are without any parallel in the history of the world. At a moment when Great Britain was weighed down by the enormous expence of the war, she liberally stretched forth her hand for the relief of the sufferers. The civil officers, who were appointed by government, were the first objects of attention:—To these £32,934 16s. 6d. were issued from the civil list for their immediate support, and to others who had suffered for their attachment to His Majesty's government. From the year 1776 to 1789 no less than £720,837, in addition to the sums disbursed under the direction of the commissioners of inquiry, were voted by parliament, partly to the American sufferers in general and partly to those civil officers holding appointments from government, who had been driven from that country.

Commissioners, who had been appointed to examine and enquire into the claims of those who had suffered losses, ultimately reported, after a laborious investigation, that 2,994 individuals, who had preferred claims, estimated their losses at £7,261,358 sterling, and the annual income of which they had been deprived at £90,236; but after a full investigation only 1724 could prove that they sustained losses to the amount of £1,887,548, and an annual income amounting in the aggregate to £75,504. The commissioners further reported, that there were four loyal subjects, who had relief provided for them by the treaty of peace, and whose claims amounted to £45,363, which they were unable to recover; and that the probable amount of future claims might be about £300,000.

Commissioners were also appointed to inquire into the losses of another class of sufferers, namely the public officers and British subjects, who had either lost their official situations or had been compelled to remove from East Florida, in consequence of the cession of that colony to the Spaniards by the treaty of peace in 1783. These commissioners reported, that they had received and examined 268 different claims, amounting in the gross to £602,765 1s. 7d. of which only 179 had been sustained, amounting together to £127,552 14s. 3d.

The important subject of these respective reports came under the consideration of parliament on the 6th of June 1778, when after some discussion it was resolved in a committee of supply, that provision should be made for the liquidation of the several sums, which had been ascertained to be due to the sufferers. And accordingly, by the Act of the 28 Geo. III. cap. 40. Certificates, bearing interest at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, were ordered to be issued to the various classes of loyalists to the amount of £1,228,239, and to the proprietors of estates in east Florida † a further sum amounting to £113,952 14s. 3d.;

† The cession of East Florida, by the treaty of peace in 1783, from its local situation in the vicinity of the West India Islands, and the abundance of fine lumber which it produced, has been felt as a serious loss to this country, while to Spain it is rather a burthen than an advantage. Spain owes to this country one hundred fold beyond the value of this colony. Its restoration would be little or no sacrifice, while to Great Britain it would prove an acquisition of vast importance not only from the lumber and provisions it could furnish to the Colonies, but from a species of the finest cotton, required for the manufactures, which could be cultivated in this colony.

besides which, certain allowances were made to those public officers and loyalists, whose losses of income had been proved to the satisfaction of the commissioners.

In addition to these grants, an expence to the extent of £38,093 16s. 11d. was incurred in salaries to the commissioners, their clerks, and others connected with the establishment, besides £3,700 paid to the commissioners appointed to ascertain the East Florida claims. The fees at the Exchequer on £150,000 paid to the loyalists in 1785 amounted to £3,750 14s. 0d. The lands purchased at the Bahama Islands and St. Vincent for the use of the loyalists, together with the expence of surveying and settling the new establishments for them in Nova Scotia and other British settlements in North America have been estimated at £250,000, while the half-pay, given to the officers of the provincial corps raised from among the loyalists during the war, has also been estimated at £60,000. In the year 1787, £50,000 were voted towards the expence of victualling the loyalists in their new settlements in the British North American colonies,—an expence which probably had not in the first instance been contemplated.

The following Statement will nearly shew the amount of the benevolence of the British Government, manifested towards the American Loyalists and the Sufferers in East Florida.

1. Sums paid prior to, and since the appointment of the Commissioners of Inquiry, exclusive of the sums distributed under their direction	£720,873
2. Loyalists' Certificates by the 28th Geo. III. Cap. 40	1,228,289
3. Loyalists' Certificates of East Florida Idem	113,952
4. Unliquidated Claims estimated at	300,000
5. Annual Incomes of Loyalists, if reduced to £35,000, at ten years purchase	350,000
6. Half-pay to the Officers of the Provincial Corps raised in America, £60,000 at eight years purchase	480,000
7. The estimated expence of the Commissioners before their Inquiry terminates, in the whole	50,000
8. The expence of the East Florida Commission	3,750
9. Lands purchased for the Loyalists in the Bahamas and St. Vincent's, and the expence attending their new Settlements in the North American Provinces	250,000
10. Fees at the Exchequer	2,750
Total	<u>£3,500,564</u>

Thus it appears, that more than three millions and a half have been furnished from the resources of Great Britain and from the labour of its people, for the purpose of communicating assistance and comfort to their fellow subjects, whose loyalty and attachment to the parent state had driven them from their homes, and their means of subsistence in a part of the dominions of the crown, which, after a struggle of nearly eight years, had been ultimately severed from this country.

The national liberality in this instance is without parallel, and places the government, the legislature, and the people in a point of view, which must excite the admiration of all civilized countries; and more especially, as these pecuniary sacrifices were made partly under the pressure of heavy burdens, the result of an expensive war, and ultimately at a time when the resources of the nation had become extremely limited, and when a temporary gloom had overspread the country in consequence of a stagnation of trade and other calamities at the conclusion of this unfortunate war. This liberality, however, is the less to be regretted, as a tide of prosperity soon after burst upon the nation, perhaps unparalleled in the history of the world.*

* The following is an estimate of the expences of the British North American Colonies, from the accession of the House of Hanover until Michaelmas 1788. It exhibits in strong colours the vast pecuniary sacrifices of the parent state for the protection of these provinces against a foreign enemy, and all the evils which would have resulted from an arbitrary government. It shews also the liberality of the parent country in easing the Colonies of the burthen of their civil establishments, and its benevolence wherever distress prevailed, or its fostering care was required.—

1. The expence of settling, securing, and defraying the expences of the Civil Governments of the American Colonies	£1,294,582
2. Compensations and rewards to the Colonies for assisting in warlike operations for their own immediate advantage and protection	1,372,518
3. Bounties granted on the importation of American commodities for the benefit of cultivators	1,609,345
4. To the proprietors of North Carolina for the purchase of their title to that province	22,500
5. To the sufferers by the fire at Charlestown, South Carolina, in 1740	20,000
6. The expence of American surveys of the coast, &c. paid by Great Britain	34,296
7. Money voted by Parliament for the forces employed in the defence of the Colonies from 1714 to 1775	8,779,925
8. Money voted from 1775 to 1788 inclusive, at the rate of £100,000 per annum	1,400,000
9. Extraordinary expences of Forts, Garrisons, Ordnance Stores, and presents to Indians, &c. &c.	10,500,000
10. Expences of Fleets and Naval stations established for the defence of America, and to prevent the Colonies from falling under the dominion of a foreign arbitrary Government	12,000,000
11. Compensations and relief to American Loyalists estimated (perhaps too low) at	3,500,000
	£40,533,266

The most prejudiced Citizen of the new government of the United States will not deny, that the free constitution and most of the advantages they now enjoy are to be traced to the fostering and protecting power of Great Britain, exercised with a liberality and at an expence which is unexampled, and from which results very different from what has been experienced might have been expected; since protection was afforded without those heavy burdens, which must hereafter be supported from the labour of the people, which under the British Government was all their own.

BRITISH WEST INDIA ISLANDS.

If the salaries of the different governors of the West India colonies, which, as representatives of his Majesty, are paid out of the Civil List, shall make no part of the estimate of these colonies, the burthen upon this country on account of their civil establishments may be considered as very light. These colonies have in general yielded a revenue equal to their civil establishments.

From the commencement of the present reign to the year 1788 inclusive, the only parliamentary grants, which appear in the public accounts, are these following:—

Compensation to the Government of Barbadoes in 1765	£10,000	£
Idem . . . to assist the Inhabitants of Barbadoes in cleansing the Channel, &c. in 1785	5,000—15,000	
To the Bahama Islands, including £14,206 paid for the purchase of the soil in 1784 and 1786	7,696	
Bermuda	3,832	
Dominica—Chief Justice's Salary	600—32,128	

From the year 1789 to the year 1812 inclusive, it appears that the following additional sums have been voted—

	£
To the Bahama Islands	92,308
Bermuda	14,502
Dominica	14,004
Salaries to the Judges of Vice-Admiralty Courts, new modelled, in the West Indies paid out of the Consolidated Fund, from 1801 to 1812 inclusive	71,685
	—192,499
	£239,627

The naval and military expences in protecting the West India Colonies, during the present reign, have been very enormous in consequence of foreign wars which have occurred, and which can only be compensated by the retention of the captured colonies. It is impossible even to guess at the amount.

BRITISH SETTLEMENTS IN AFRICA.

The British Forts in Africa, and the Civil Establishment at Senegambia, from the commencement of the present reign until the year 1788, amounted to . . .	} £480,990
The Expences incurred since that period to the year 1813, amounted to . . .	410,069
The sums voted for the Establishment and support of the Settlement at Sierra Leone, from the year 1793 to 1813 inclusive, amounted to . . .	} 211,668
Expences of Mission making discoveries in Africa in the years 1805, 1806, and 1810 . . .	4,691
Total	<u>£1,107,418</u>

It is anxiously to be hoped, that the extension of commerce, arising from the gradual improvement of these settlements and the growth of valuable produce, will in due time recompence the country for the enormous sums which have already been expended on them, and which are not likely to be diminished. When the additional expence of protecting the African Settlements during war is considered, great doubts may be entertained as to their ever proving of any advantage to the United Kingdom.

CONVICTS IN THE HULKS.

Previous to the commencement of the American war, the British and Irish convicts, ordered for transportation, were conveyed to the American colonies by contractors, at an easy expence to government. On their arrival in Maryland, to which province they were usually sent, their services for seven or fourteen years were purchased by the planters and others, who employed them either in agricultural labour or in handicraft employments, according to the occupations they had pursued in this country. The laws of the province admitted of a considerable degree of coercion on the part of the master, which, being known to the convicts, generally produced good behaviour. Thus controlled and enured to habits of increasing industry, being at the same time well fed and well clothed, they became useful instead of noxious members of this new community, because there was no other alternative. These habits became familiar at the end of their servitude, while those who possessed superior talents, availing themselves of resources which did not exist in the parent state, either became agriculturists, or followed their trade on their own account as handicrafts, by which numbers in process of time acquired property, and became ultimately themselves the purchasers of the services of convicts, chusing those who from their particular trades best suited their purpose.

The war of resistance in the colonies terminated this mode of disposing of convicts; and in the choice of difficulties the British Government resorted to the expedient of confining these offenders in the hulks, and of employing them in raising ballast and other works upon the Thames, and afterwards the labour of a part was transferred to Portsmouth and its vicinity.

From the year 1776 to 1788 inclusive there was expended in maintaining convicts in the Hulks £220,873

From 1789 to March 1814 inclusive, the following additional sums have been disbursed, viz.—

	Granted by Parliament in 1789	56,598	
Although the system has undergone many improvements, and is perhaps as well managed as such an establishment is susceptible of, yet it is liable to many objections. There is an error in the principle. The great object of reform is rendered impracticable. The most depraved of the convicts of the metropolis, who are generally irreclaimable, herd together with the country convicts, who are comparatively innocent, and might, by proper management, be rendered useful members of society; but in such seminaries the force of evil example has a powerful influence on their minds,—they become speedily proselyted to all the vices and all the depravity of the town convicts, and thus every measure adopted for their reform is defeated. Having thus joined their associates in criminality, slightly tinged with the wickedness and vices peculiar to great towns, ultimately the whole (or nearly the whole) from the lessons they learn exhibit the same degree of depravity and the same disposition to renew their depredations on the public, upon a more extended scale,—acquiring an additional degree of adroitness and resource from the feats of robbery recounted by their companions in iniquity.	1790	41,117	
	1791	52,565	
	1792	23,424	
	1793	23,428	
	1794	24,969	
	1795	26,903	
	1796	20,757	
	1797	67,399	
	1798	36,863	
	1799	72,914	
	1800	40,353	
	1801	45,317	
	1802	31,024—	563,631
	Total 27 years.		£784,504
	1803	40,847	
	1804	44,116	
	1805	53,719	
	1806	48,329	
	1807	51,350	
	1808	48,250	
	1809	55,295	
	1810	56,450	
	1811	83,130	
	1812	70,800	
	1813	75,000	
	March 1814	93,594—	720,880
Total in 38-9 years			£1,505,384

The legislature, at length, sensible of the inadequacy of this mode of punishing convicts, have resorted to the expedient of building a penitentiary house upon a large scale.

In the year 1799 there was granted towards the erection of this building . £36,000
 In the year 1812 a further grant was made of 30,000
 And in 1813 a further sum was granted of 28,835
 exclusive of £2,823 paid for designs for Penitentiary Houses,—making a
 total of £97,658.

And the building is now in progress.

TRANSPORTATION OF CONVICTS.

The system of the hulks being found inadequate to the object of reform which had been anticipated, the executive government, allured by the splendid account which had been given of the great fertility and salubrious climate of that part of New Holland denominated Botany Bay, formed the project of transporting the male and female convicts to that distant region; no doubt in the expectation that, encouraged by the productive nature of the soil and the encouragements which would be held out by grants of land to the most deserving, these unfortunate individuals would alter their evil course in a country where no temptations existed, and would become useful members of society.

Under these impressions, a plan was formed in the year 1785 for establishing a settlement in New Holland, and in the following year (1786) the measure of transporting felons to New South Wales. The first embarkation took place in 1787, and in the month of May in the year after, 1030 male and female convicts were landed in the new colony; which has been followed up ever since by additional embarkations from year to year. In 1791 the number transported extended to 5000. According to a report made by a select committee of the House of Commons in 1812, it appears that the population of the colony by the latest advices stood thus:—

Convicts	1,711
Settlers and Free persons	7,948
Troops	2,291
Total	11,950

NEW SOUTH WALES.

It appears also from the report of the select committee of the House of Commons, printed the 26th June 1798, that from the year 1788 to 1797, the sum expended on convicts sent to New South Wales amounted to £1,037,230

The same report states— in 1789 in 1797

“ The Civil Establishment as costing £2,877 10 0 and £5,523 10 0

The Military Establishment Idem 6,847 1 10 and 16,906 4 2

£9,724 11 10 £22,429 14 2

Naval Establishment . . . 10,010 0 0 10,010 0 0

£19,734 11 10 £32,439 14 2

Since the year 1797, the Parliamentary grants for the support of this establishment have been regular and progressive, generally increasing every year, as will appear from the following statement:—

Granted by Parliament for the		Brought over	
expences of the Colony of New		£358,233	
South Wales	in 1798 .	59,230	
	1799 .	26,546	1806 . 44,412
	1800 .	71,019	1807 . 37,819
	1801 .	47,699	1808 . 30,542
	1802 .	46,849	1809 . 55,585
	1803 .	36,443	1810 . 53,286
	1804 .	38,049	1811 . 43,306
	1805 .	32,398	1812 . 61,074
Carried over		£358,233	1813 . 93,695—777,952
			£1,815,182

In these sums are not included the military or naval expences, which must have greatly increased in consequence of additional force sent out since 1797; the whole cannot be estimated at less on an average than £25,000 a year from the first settlement of the colony in 1787 to the present year 1813 650,000

Total including Naval and Military Expences £2,465,182

This almost incredible expence deserves the most serious attention of the Legislature, more especially instead of diminishing, as might reasonably be expected as the cultivation of the colony advanced, it has been increasing within the last five years in a ratio that is truly alarming; since upon an average it is nearly equal to the full support of the whole population of the colony, where there ought at this period to be

a considerable proportion of surplus labour, applicable at least to the civil and military expences of the settlement.

Expences incurred by Police Establishments in the Metropolis.

In the course of the present reign various establishments connected with the police of the metropolis, for the more correct and regular administration of the office of justices of the peace, and for the more certain and speedy detection, apprehension, and punishment of criminal offenders, have been instituted under the sanction and authority of Parliament, namely,—

1. In 1792. Seven Public Offices, situate at convenient distances from each other, in the City and Liberty of Westminster, the Out-parishes of the Metropolis, and the Borough of Southwark, at each of which three Magistrates preside daily with Clerks and a competent number of Police Officers, for the administration of justice and other objects connected with the functions of Justices of the Peace. The expences of these offices, including the Office in Bow-street, after deducting the fees, penalties, and forfeitures, from 1792 to 1813, amounted to	} £	406,135
2. Granted for a horse and foot patrol for the detection and prevention of highway robberies, including £1,595 paid for a Plan from 1805 to 1813 inclusive	} £	51,344
3. Thames Police Office, instituted by Act of Parliament in 1800, where three Magistrates preside, with eighteen River Surveyors and forty-three Water Officers, who patrol the river every night for the prevention of criminal offences and the detection of offenders, operating at the same time as a check to illicit trade. Expences after deducting the fees, penalties, and forfeitures to 1813	} £	105,164
Inspector of the temporary places of confinement of Felons previous to transportation, from 1802 to 1812 inclusive	} £	3,733
Total		£566,416

Parliamentary Grants, &c. for the Expences of the Mint and Coinage of Money.

The gold coinage in this reign was much more extensive than in any that preceded it. The silver coinage was extremely limited.

Granted at various times for the extra expences of the Mint previous to the year 1778 inclusive } 28 years . . . £573,089

Granted by Parliament idem from 1789 to 1799 inclusive . . . 11 years . . . 116,025

The following sums were paid out of the Consolidated Fund, from 1800 to 1813:—

The Master of his Majesty's Mint in England	£117,300
Idem Idem in Scotland	14,400
Receiver of Fees and Emoluments in the Office of } Master of the Mint in the Tower of London . . . }	32,927— 164,627
Total	£853,741

It has been generally supposed, that at his Majesty's accession to the throne there might be of gold in circulation			£25,000,000
From the year 1760 to the 23d August 1773, there was coined about			10,000,000
From the 23d of August 1773 to the end of 1777			Idem 20,447,002
From the end of the year 1777 to the end of 1798			Idem £33,831,236
Deduct for light guineas re-coined since 1777			15,328,196—18,503,040
			<u>£73,950,042</u>

The new coinage of gold during the present reign may be estimated at about

£64,000,000

To which must be added the supposed circulation in 1760

25,000,000

89,000,000

Deduct light guineas withdrawn from circulation and re-coined

about 30,000,000

Remains £59,000,000

Of this immense sum, however, there is no reason to believe, that more than about £15,000,000 (the amount estimated in the Table, No. 2, page 55 in this work) remains in the hands of the bankers in Great Britain and Ireland, and in the hoards of individuals, including the silver of the mint coinage in circulation; the deficiency has been unquestionably converted into bullion, or exported in coin to foreign countries, and what has been melted, something also must be allowed for waste and for losses at sea.

It is impossible, while the precious metals are to be considered in the same light as every other article of commerce, that any human law can preserve them in the shape of coin in this or any other country, when it becomes the interest of individuals to convert such coin into bullion; which must uniformly be the case in all instances where the demand for the precious metals for commercial or manufacturing purposes exceeds the supply. When this happens to be the case, bullion, like corn, sugar, coffee, or any other article of commerce, will advance in price, and vice versa. The high price, therefore, of the precious metals, for a series of years, sufficiently accounts for the disappearance of the coin as a medium of exchange.

*Grants of Parliament to his Majesty's Executive Government for
Secret Services.*

Granted for Secret Services previous to the year 1802 inclusive . . .	eight years . . .	£1,025,345
Granted 1803		£150,000
1804		150,000
1805		175,000
1806		175,000
1807		175,000
1808		68,767
1809		175,000
1810		175,000
1811		175,000
1812		175,000
1813		175,000—1,768,767
		Total £2,794,112

*Parliamentary Grants for the Expences incurred at the Offices of his Majesty's principal
Secretaries of State for Messengers and Contingencies, and
Superintendence of Aliens.*

Granted for Contingent Expences from 1804 to 1813 inclusive	£200,495
Granted for the Superintendence of Aliens previous to 1804	43,461
Granted for Idem from 1804 to 1813 inclusive—10 years	74,723
	£318,679

*Parliamentary Grants for Law Charges, and for the Rewards for the Prosecution and
Conviction of Felons paid to the Sheriffs.*

Granted for Law Charges, from 1804 to 1813	£197,500
Granted to the Sheriffs for the prosecution of Felons, from 1804 to 1813 inclusive	106,606
Granted for the prosecution of Offenders under the Coinage Law previous to 1803	15,808
Granted for Idem 1803 to 1813 inclusive	42,029
	£361,943

PUBLIC BUILDINGS, &c.

Although no palace has been erected for the residence of his Majesty, during the present reign, suitable to the Sovereign of so great an Empire, yet large sums

have at different times been expended in public buildings of various descriptions,—
the principal of which are these following:—

The Queen's Palace or Buckingham House, including the purchase money and repairs	£100,627
Granted at different times for building and repairs of Carleton House	83,700
Granted to the Foundling Hospital	368,679
Granted for rebuilding Bethlem Hospital	72,819
Rebuilding Newgate in 1780	30,000
Granted at different times for building Somerset Place, exclusive of £100,000 paid by the Public to the Crown for purchasing the Queen's Palace	391,275
Granted at different times for building a Military College at Sandhurst, near Blackwall, in Surrey	260,000
Granted at different times for building, &c. the Royal Military College at Chelsea	317,725
Idem for the Royal Military Asylum Idem, inclu- ding the purchase of the Land	289,443
Idem for the Royal Naval Asylum at Greenwich	279,929
Idem for Land purchased at Woolwich, Weedon Beck, and Warley Common for the Ordnance	118,106
Granted at different times for a Lazaret at Chetney Hill	167,000
Idem for the expence of the Building, Machinery, &c. of the New Mint on Tower Hill	331,990
Idem for enlarging, repairing, and improving the two Houses of Parliament, including the Speaker's House	204,079
Idem for opening, enlarging, and improving the Streets near Westminster Hall	66,757
Idem for erecting a house adjoining the Admiralty in 1786	6,000
Idem for the purchase of Houses taken down and the ground on which they stood	198,643
Idem for ground for erecting the New Sessions House in Westminster	12,225
Idem for repairs of Henry VIIIth's Chapel, Westminster Abbey	15,708
Idem for repairs of St. Margaret's Church, Westminster	11,221
Idem for the Royal Vault and Chapter House erecting at Windsor	6,000
Idem for a Building for the Royal College of Surgeons for the reception of Mr. John Hun- ter's Museum, and for erecting a Theatre	27,500
Idem for a house for the Judge Advocate General, in Downing-street	9,685
Idem for the purchase of Sir John Eden's House	7,878
Idem for a house and offices for the Secretary of State Idem	3,435
Idem for repairs and furniture to the Irish Office in Great George-street, Westminster	2,099
Idem for a house and furniture for the India Board in Downing-street	1,871
Granted for the repairs of Prisons	63,330
Idem for the purchase of the Gaol in Surrey	4,214
Idem for building a new Prison at Edinburgh	11,000
Idem for building a Penitentiary House in Tothill-fields, now in progress, including the sums paid for Plans	97,658
Idem for building a Light House at Heligoland	13,436
For defraying the expences incurred in building a Light House on the Cape or Bell Rock	25,000
For the purchase of two Houses in Albion-street, Adelphi, for the additional Commissioners of public Accounts in 1806	1,949
For Repairs, Alterations, and Furniture of the Audit Office, Adelphi, in 1808	3,500
Total	£3,604,481

This aggregate, large as it appears to be, does not include the buildings which have been erected for military purposes (except the asylums for education) and for objects of defence under the direction of the Master General of the Ordnance, such as fortifications, batteries, martello towers, and other erections in Great Britain and Ireland. If to these shall be added the forts and other similar buildings, with the houses attached thereto, which have been erected in the different dependencies of the crown during the present reign; and if to the whole shall also be added the annual repairs, which these buildings and erections have required, the whole expences incurred in the British Empire must be immense.

As however the money thus expended is not specifically mentioned in any Parliamentary grant, and is of course not to be found in what is usually denominated the Appropriation Acts of each year, there are no means of discovering the precise amount,—a part being paid out of the sums voted generally for the ordnance service, and a proportion also by bills drawn on the Treasury:—Perhaps the aggregate may be estimated at about six millions for the whole of his present Majesty's reign.

If it shall be argued (while money is borrowed by the public), that the large sums thus laid out impose a hardship on posterity, it may with justice be answered, that this species of expence differs from that which is wasted in wars or other improvident expenditure, inasmuch as the accommodation it affords, and the advantages resulting from it, are as much for the benefit of posterity as for the present generation. In fact, these improvements constitute a part of the national property, representing the sums expended upon them. The aggregate amount is certainly so enormous as even to excite the astonishment of those members of the Legislature now living, who assisted in voting this money, and the public boards and others whose province it is to record these expences.

BRITISH MUSEUM.

Granted for the British Museum to 1788	£39,750
Further Grants to Idem from 1789 to 1813 inclusive*	155,540
	£195,290

BENEVOLENT INSTITUTIONS.

Granted to the Institution for preventing the spreading of contagious malignant Fevers in the Metropolis, in 1805	£3,000
Idem for the Refuge to the Destitute, 25th March, 1814	1,400
	£4,600

* These are yearly grants to the British Museum from £3,000 to 10, 11, 13, and 20 thousand pounds; part for the support of this national establishment, but the larger proportion for the purchase of Books, Manuscripts, Medals, ancient Statuary, and other Works of Art. Among these are Mr. Townley's, Mr. Greville's, and other Collections. The property deposited in this great and splendid national Institution may now be considered of immense value. The expences incurred in this reign are exclusive of £37,000, paid for Sir Hans Sloane's Collection, the Harleian Manuscripts, &c. under the 36 Geo. II. cap. 26.

PUBLIC ROADS, BRIDGES, HARBOURS, CANALS, &c.

Whenever public money shall be judiciously laid out in those general improvements, which shall open more effectually the intercourse and communication between the cultivated and remote parts of the country and one district with another, whether by bridges, roads, or canals, such money may be truly said to be well employed for the benefit of the nation; since nothing can tend more to render the produce of the soil abundant, or to diffuse it generally where it may be most wanted.

Had the many millions, which it has unfortunately for the country been found necessary to expend in wars, been employed in the general improvement of waste lands, and in roads and canals in every part of Great Britain and Ireland,—the productive labour, or the new property created annually would probably have been double its present amount, affording employment and food for a very extended population, while the whole country would have exhibited a continuity of cultivation, rich, fertile, and productive beyond all conception.

Grants made for Roads in the Highlands of Scotland from 1760 to 1788	£111,442
Idem . . . for repairs of Roads in Durham, and building a Bridge at Coldstream	4,000
Idem . . . for making a Road at Penmaenmawr in Wales	2,000
Idem . . . for repairing London Bridge	37,000
Idem . . . for paving the Streets in Westminster	20,800
Idem . . . for repairing Westminster Bridge	6,000
Idem . . . for making a commodious passage to the House of Commons	12,000
For the purchase of Lands, &c. for better securing the Docks at Portsmouth, and for extending the Lines at Dover	13,471
Granted for making Catwater Harbour, Plymouth	3,000
Idem Royal Military Canal in 1808 and 1809	83,893
For the completion of the Wet Docks and other Works in the Harbour of Leith, in 1805	25,000
Grants for Roads, Bridges, Harbours, &c. from Michaelmas 1788 to Michaelmas 1803 inclusive	117,180
Idem for Roads, Bridges, and Canals, &c. from Michaelmas 1804 to 25th March 1814 inclusive,— in which is comprehended the great Crinan Canal in the North of Scotland, upon which about £50,000 a year has been expended since the commencement of this great national undertaking in the year 1803	786,260
For the improvement of the Port of London:—	
To the Chamberlain of the City of London at various times, from 1801 to 1808 inclusive	£277,000
For compensations for losses sustained under the Act for the improvement of the Port of London, from 1807 to 1812 inclusive	662,677
For Expences incurred on a plan for the improvement of London, and for the security of the Shipping, from 1801 to 1808 inclusive	6,410
To Sir William Curtis, to be distributed amongst 130 Ticket Porters, claiming compensations under the Act 39 Geo. III. for Idem in 1807	11,366

Continued £957,453 £1,222,046

AND PUBLIC EXPENDITURE.

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	Brought over	£957,453	£1,222,046
To the owners and occupiers of the legal Quays between London Bridge and the Tower of London, for the purchase of their Interest therein, in 1805 and 1806		486,086	
For rent of Porter's and Smart's Quays in 1808		973	
To the Directors of the West India Dock Company, including expences incurred by them in 1801, 1807, and 1808		32,497	
Commissioners for the improvement of the Port of London from 1807 to 1812 inclusive		38,000—	1,515,009
	Total	£2,737,055	

COMMISSIONERS OF INQUIRY AND EXAMINATION OF PUBLIC ACCOUNTS.

Commissioners of public Accounts, instituted 1780, for Salaries and Contingencies to 1813	£384,695
Granted for additional allowances to Clerks in the Office of the said Commissioners, from 1799 to 1807 inclusive	63,386—£448,081
Additional Commissioners of public Accounts at various times	17,832
Commissioners of West India Accounts from 1806 to 1813	65,147
Commissioners for examining into the Claims of American Loyalists to 1791 inclusive	72,286
Commissioners for examining the Claims of East Florida Sufferers Idem	9,950
Expences of the Isle of Man Commissioners in 1793	1,146
Commissioners for inquiring into the Fees of Public Offices Idem	2,603
Commissioners on American Convention 1803	1,060
Commissioners on American Treaty Articles VI. and VII. 1803, 1804, and 1805	*1,176,774
Commissioners on American Claims, from 1789 to 1813	34,779
Commissioners for the Affairs of Trinidad, 1808	14,148
Commissioners under the Slave Act, from 1789 to 1792 inclusive	1,600
Commissioners for the New Forest, Hampshire, in 1803 and 1809	4,800
Commissioners for Windsor Forest 1810	8,300
Commissioners for enquiring into the Laws of Jurats in the Island of Jersey 1794 and 1812	4,674
Commissioners sent to South America, including the Expences of the Commission granted in 1813	14,344
Commission on the state of Malta and Goza, granted in 1813	8,050
Commissioners for inquiring into the state of the Public Records, from 1800 to 1813, including the expences of printing	72,713
Commissioners on Military Inquiry, from 1803 to 1813 inclusive	41,130
Commissioners of Naval Inquiry, from 1804 to 1807 inclusive	34,951
Commissioners of Public Expenditure in certain Military Departments, in 1810, 1811, and 1812	41,734

Continued £2,076,102

* The whole of this sum cannot be for mere expences.

Brought over £2,076,102

COMMISSIONERS FOR PUBLIC PURPOSES.

Commissioners for reducing the National Debt, from 1799 to 1813	34,490
Commissioners for the Sale and Redemption of the Land Tax since 1799	40,610
Commissioners for issuing Exchequer Bills to defray Expences since 1800	8,500
Commissioners for managing the Lotteries, from 1800 to 1813	175,083
Granted to Commissioners of Land Revenue, Woods, and Forests to 1808	10,643
Total	<u>£2,345,428</u>

Many of these expensive commissions, being of a temporary nature, have expired. Others however remain, which have no doubt been attended with considerable utility, in as far as improved methods have been suggested for simplifying the public accounts, and for correcting future unnecessary expenditure. It may however be important to inquire, whether, through the medium of the different commissions, sums have been recovered which otherwise would not have passed into the Exchequer, equal to the amount of the aggregate expence of the respective commissions, which in a course of years have amounted to an enormous sum of money.

PARLIAMENTARY EXPENCES.

Grants for the expence of printing Journals, Public Accounts, Stationary, &c. from 1760 to 1788	£333,172
Grants for the expence of printing Indexes to 1788	15,900
for East India Committees to 1788	2,860
for Parliamentary Prosecutions to 1788	32,615
Grants for the expence of printing Journals, public Stationary, and all other Expences incurred by both Houses of Parliament, from 1789 to 1802 inclusive	104,099
Grants for the expence of printing Journals, public Accounts, Stationary, and all other Expences incurred by Parliament, from 1803 to 25th March 1814 inclusive, and also including Parliamentary prosecutions	1,092,442
	<u>£1,581,088</u>
Granted for replacing money issued in pursuance of Addresses from the House of Commons, from the commencement of this reign to 1802 inclusive	645,233
from 1803 to 1813 inclusive	239,548
	<u>£2,465,869</u>

An enormous expence has been incurred of late years by the practice of printing every ephemeral paper or account that is moved for, the greater part of which becomes rubbish, while very few produce any useful practical effect: no person even in Parliament can look at this aggregate expence without astonishment and regret.

**PARLIAMENTARY GRANTS FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF COMMERCE
AND NAVIGATION.**

Granted to the Levant Company, from 1760 to 1788, to assist them in carrying on their trade	£75,000	£
Idem - Idem - - from 1789 to 1808 inclusive	45,000—120,000	
Granted for engraving Charts of North America in 1775	-	3,711
Granted to defray the expence of surveying the Coasts of Great Britain and Ireland, and improving the same, previous to 1788	-	2,145
Granted for Discoveries at the North Pole	-	5,000
Granted for Discoveries in the interior of Africa, in 1805, 1808, and 1810 inclusive	-	10,342
		<u>£141,198</u>

BOUNTIES.

For the encouragement of the growth of Hemp and Flax in England and Scotland, } from 1791 to 1813	£57,909
Bounties paid out of the Revenue of Customs on Corn, Cotton, and Linen Manufacture, } British and Southern Whale Fishery and Newfoundland and White Herring Fishery, } Slave Bounty, and Bounty for encouragement of Volunteer Seamen, from 1801 to 1813	6,512,170
Bounties paid out of the Revenue of Excise on Beer, British Spirits, Fish and Salted } Provisions exported, and Buss and Barrel Bounties, from 1801 to 1813	436,106
Bounties on British American Fish imported into the West India Islands in 1808 and } 1809	5,862—7,012,047
	<u>£7,153,245</u>

Various other expences have been incurred, in making discoveries, by eminent circumnavigators during the present reign; but the charges do not appear to have been defrayed by grants of Parliament, but from the naval department, which cannot be easily ascertained, although they must have been very considerable.

PARLIAMENTARY REWARDS FOR USEFUL DISCOVERIES.

PREVIOUS TO 1788.

Granted to Dr. Irvine for his method of making Sea-water fresh and wholesome	£5,000
to David Hartley to enable him to ascertain the practicability and utility of his method of securing Buildings and Ships from Fire	2,500
to various persons for discovering Dyes, useful in Manufactures	5,500
to Charles Dingley for erecting a public Wind-mill for manufacturing Timber	2,000
to John Blake, Esq. to assist him in carrying on his scheme of transporting Fish to London by Land Carriage	2,500
	<u>Continued £17,500</u>

Brought up £17,500

SUBSEQUENT TO 1788.

Granted to Mr. Elkinston for discovering his mode of draining Land	-	-	-	1,000
to Arthur Young, Esq. Secretary to the Board of Agriculture for Premiums to be paid for Essays on breaking up of Grass Land in 1801	-	-	-	800
to Dr. Smyth for his discovery of Nitric Fumigation to prevent the communication of Contagion in 1813	-	-	-	5,258
to Dr. Jenner for promulgating his Discoveries of the Vaccine Inoculation 1802	-	-	-	10,000
to Dr. Jenner, a further Grant in 1807	-	-	-	20,000
to Thomas Faden, Esq. towards enabling him to prosecute a Discovery made by him of a Paste as a substitute for Wheat Flour, in 1801	-	-	-	500
to Mr. Greathead, boat-builder, for his invention of a Life Boat, affording greater security to the Lives of Seamen and others in cases of Shipwreck	-	-	-	1,850
to Mr. John Davies for his discovery of the method of cleaning smutty Wheat, granted in 1800	-	-	-	1,000
to Dr. Cartwright for various Mechanical Inventions, granted in 1809	-	-	-	10,000
to Mr. Crompton for inventing the Machine called the Mule	-	-	-	5,000
to Captain Manby, as a Reward for his Invention for effecting a Communication with Ships stranded, and for Expences in carrying into execution his Plans for saving the Lives of shipwrecked Mariners, in 1810 and 1812	-	-	-	3,250
Miscellaneous Rewards at various times	-	-	-	1,305
				<u>£77,463</u>

If we consider useful inventions as tending to improve the industry of the country,—to extend the scope of productive labour,—to save the lives of the subjects of his Majesty by the prevention of disease or otherwise;—If such inventions and discoveries tend to promote the general happiness, Parliament, amidst the millions which are otherwise expended, cannot be accused of much profusion in rewarding this species of merit. It is however to be observed, that the proprietor of every invention in mechanics or otherwise may be rewarded under the monopoly created by his Majesty's patent.

Experience has shewn, that great caution is necessary with respect to useful discoveries, since of the many thousand patents which have been obtained, very few, comparatively speaking, have answered the sanguine hopes of the inventors when actually reduced to practice. Dr. Jenner's discovery of all others, when combined with the perseverance he has manifested, holds the first rank in point of intrinsic and real merit. Its practical effect has not only been ascertained and acknowledged after more than fifteen years experience in his own country; but what may be thought surprising, its benefits are in a much greater degree felt and recorded not only in

foreign Europe, but in the most distant regions of Asia, Africa, and America, where millions of lives are preserved, by his, (Dr. Jenner's,) mild and efficacious method of removing the effects of a nauseous and dangerous malady, heretofore so destructive to the human race. And although with perhaps a very few exceptions, prejudices exist in England, only against the efficacy of the vaccine inoculation, yet it is sincerely to be lamented, as a great national misfortune, that such should be the case in the very country which gave existence to a discovery, which all the civilized nations of the world have felt and acknowledged to be so great and incalculable a blessing.

**COMPENSATIONS TO VARIOUS INDIVIDUALS GRANTED BY PARLIAMENT
DURING THE PRESENT REIGN.**

PREVIOUS TO 1788.

Compensations for Lands, &c. near Portsmouth, Plymouth, Chatham, Sheerness, &c. from 1781 to 1786 inclusive	£69,477
Various compensations to Individuals for Ships detained for the Public Service and the like	16,521
In satisfaction of losses incurred in preventing the spread of the Infectious Distemper among Horned Cattle	4,074
Compensation for damage sustained by Powder Mills	5,000
Compensation to Dr. Peter Swinton for damage to his estate at Chester in the rebellion of 1745	700
Compensation to the Duke of Athol for the Lordship of the Isle of Man, purchased by the Crown under the 5 Geo. III. cap. 26. 1765	70,000
Compensations to persons who had sustained damage in the riots in London, 1780	31,206
Compensation to the Creditors who had demands on the forfeited Estates in Scotland	110,553
Compensation to Sir James Murray, late Governor of Minorca, in consequence of a verdict obtained against him by James Sutherland	5,489

SUBSEQUENT TO 1788.

Compensation to John Reeder, Esq. for losses sustained in Jamaica in 1789	8,000
Compensation for losses on evacuating the Musquito shore in 1792	12,262
Compensation to the owners of ships in the African trade Idem	4,141
Compensation to the Representatives of Mr. Oswald, paid in 1795	41,688
Compensation for losses sustained by the destruction of the ships Aurora, Mentor, and Lark, and the fees as compensation money for the losses on the destruction of ships and cargoes from Magadore in 1800	42,448
Carried over	£416,559

	Brought over	£416,559
For the purchase of one third part of the annuity of £19,000, granted to the Duke of Richmond by the 39 and 40 Geo. III. cap. 43, paid in 1801	- - - -	£144,611
Idem - - - - Idem 1809	- - - -	146,194— 290,805
Indemnification to Earl St. Vincent and Lord Grey for the detention of American ships at the capture of Martinique and other places in the West Indies in 1799 and 1802	- -	80,332
Valuation of the Dutch ships surrendered to Sir Andrew Mitchell, at the New Diep, on 30th August 1799, paid in 1802	- - - - -	199,812
For enquiries into Distilleries and Salt Works granted in 1802	- - - -	1,338
Compensation for the capture of a vessel under English colours previous to the English quitting Corsica granted in 1802	- - - - -	1,121
Prize Money for ships taken at Toulon, paid in 1804	- - - -	265,336
Compensation to Dr. Layard for his services relative to a Distemper among the Horned Cattle granted in 1805	- - - - -	116
Compensation to Messrs. Chalmers and Cowie for loss of cargoes of Swedish herrings, granted in 1806	- - - - -	25,000
Compensation for loss of the ship Dunkirk on the coast of Denmark, granted in 1807	-	11,538
Compensation to the heirs of the late Lord Fairfax for loss of property in Virginia, paid in 1808	-	20,000
Allowances to retired Dutch officers granted in 1809	- - - -	16,000
Compensation to J. Palmer, Esq. in consequence of his improvement of the revenue of the Post Office, by 53 Geo. III.	- - - - -	50,000
		<u>£1,377,957</u>

PARLIAMENTARY GRANTS TO THE BOARD OF AGRICULTURE.

Whatever difference of opinion prevailed as to the advantages to be expected from the establishment of a Board of Agriculture, when the question was first agitated in 1799, it is believed that no doubt now remains of the beneficial practical effect of this useful institution; and even Parliament has manifested its approbation by augmenting the grants in 1810, 1811, and 1812.

Every thing which shall tend to diffuse a general knowledge of improvement in agriculture in a country, where an augmentation of the produce of the soil is of such vital importance, cannot too often attract the notice or claim the attention of the legislature. The collection of facts respecting successful efforts in agricultural pursuits being one of the objects of this institution, their general diffusion cannot fail to be in the highest degree useful.

In as far as this institution can be enabled from its limited funds to disclose to Parliament yearly the actual state of the existing agriculture of the country, such communications must be of infinite use in assisting the legislature in all discussions connected with land and labour, by producing more accurate data than if such information did not exist.

The sums granted for the support of this new institution are as follows:—

From the year 1794 to 1802 inclusive, 9 years at £3,000 a year is	-	-	£27,000
From the year 1803 to 1808 - - 6 years at £3,000 a year	-	-	18,000
1809 - - 1 idem 4,500	-	-	4,500
1810 - - 1 idem 5,500	-	-	5,500
1811 - - 1 idem 4,800	-	-	4,800
1812 - - 1 idem 5,500	-	-	5,500
1813 - - 1 idem 3,000	-	-	3,000
21 years			£68,300

This institution having now been in existence twenty-one years, it becomes a desideratum to ascertain, as far as the nature of the case will admit, to what extent improvements in agriculture have been carried in Great Britain and Ireland beyond the progressive improvements during the twenty-one preceding years. That these improvements have been much more extensive, and that agricultural produce has been more abundant during the latter period must be self-evident to every person, whose attention has been directed to subjects of this nature; and it is fair to presume that the efforts of the Board of Agriculture,—the useful facts they have obtained, and the diffusion of these facts, accompanied by appropriate observations, have given an impetus to agriculture and to improvements, which without this aid could not have taken place.

PARLIAMENTARY GRANTS TO THE VETERINARY COLLEGE.

A scientific knowledge of the diseases of horses and other domestic animals is certainly a great desideratum in a country, where so considerable a portion of the national capital must necessarily be vested in this species of property, which has become infinitely more valuable than at the commencement of the present reign.

As an encouragement therefore to the more general diffusion of the healing art, as it applies to horses and cattle, the moderate sum granted by Parliament ought never to be an object of complaint. If it shall produce the desired effect, much property may be saved by preventing contagious diseases among cattle, and by checking the spread of the disorder when it breaks out.

The sums which have been granted for this purpose are these following:—

From 1795 to 1806 inclusive £1,500 a year (12 years)	.	.	£18,000
1807	.	.	1,200
1808, 1810, and 1811 £1,000 each year	.	.	3,000
£22,200			£22,200

It is earnestly to be hoped, that the liberality of Parliament thus manifested will be productive of useful tracts diffused over the country, explaining to the rural population the symptoms and the mode of treatment to be adopted in the different diseases, to which horses, horned cattle, and sheep are liable. The means by which these useful animals may be preserved from disease, or cured when infected, is an object of infinite importance to the country!*

PARLIAMENTARY GRANTS IN AID OF THE VACCINE INSTITUTION.

The anxiety of his Majesty and Parliament to promote, as much as possible, the diffusion of the vaccine inoculation is evinced by the following sums of money, granted to the *London Vaccine Institution for the extinction of the Small-pox*, in aid of the subscriptions of individuals, in order more effectually to extend to all classes of his Majesty's subjects, and particularly to the poor, the benefits to be derived from this inestimable discovery, namely,—

In 1809	.	.	.	.	£3,163
1810	.	.	.	.	3,000
1811	.	.	.	.	3,000
1812	.	.	.	.	3,000
1813	.	.	.	.	3,000
Total					£15,163

The result has been, that the children of the poor receive vaccine inoculation *gratis* at one hundred and twenty convenient stations in the metropolis and its vicinity, and by upwards of 1,500 medical gentlemen of unquestionable abilities in the country (free of expence); and 30,238 practitioners or applicants have been supplied with 147,265 charges of vaccine ichor.

The inoculations of this Institution in the metropolis (1813) amount to	-	-	33,243
Those of the inoculators acting under the Institution in the country	-	-	285,317
Total			318,560 individuals.

* It is calculated, that in the space of about twenty years the Dutch nation lost to the amount of about £5,000,000 sterling in horned cattle, by infectious distempers, (which occasionally break out in Holland,) in the early part of the present reign. The value of sheep alone, which perish by the rot (independently of other diseases) can scarcely be estimated.

PARLIAMENTARY GRANTS FOR ECCLESIASTICAL PURPOSES.

To the Governors of Queen Anne's Bounty in aid of the poor Clergy of the Church of England, from 1809 to 1813 inclusive	£417,500
To the Dissenting Ministers and French Refugees, from 1794 to the 25th March 1814 inclusive, being 16 years	†923,747
To the Ministers of the Swiss Churches, from 1804 to 1808 inclusive	7,726
To the Synod of Ulster and Munster in Ireland, in 1805	8,731
To Dr. Clarke for his trouble relative to an Act for enforcing the residence of the Clergy, from 1805 to 1813 inclusive	5,003
	<u>£1,361,707</u>

Munificence and Humanity of Parliament manifested by various Grants for the Relief of his Majesty's Subjects in Distress.

Granted for laying in Stores of Fish for the Poor in 1800	£50,000
Granted for the relief of the distressed poor in Spitalfields and other parts of the Metropolis during the scarcity in 1801	24,226
Bounties on Corn and Grain imported into England during the scarcity in 1802 and 1803	£2,144,791
Idem on Corn, Meal, Flour, and Rice	Idem
Idem into Scotland in 1802	22,082—2,166,873
Granted for the relief of the distressed inhabitants of Orkney and Shetland, in 1804 and 1813	21,887
Granted for the relief of British subjects detained in France, in 1805 and 1806	2,118
Granted for defraying the expences of inquiries into the state of mendicity in the Metropolis, and for the purpose of procuring effectual relief for families compelled to become mendicants from actual distress, and the want of the means of procuring the common necessities of life	1801 1803 1812 1813 2,856
Granted to the poor of St. Martin's in the Fields, from 1809 to 1813 inclusive	6,478
For laying in stores of Herrings and other Fish at convenient places, and distributing them for the use of the different parts of the Kingdom, from 1800 to 1813	51,000
	<u>£2,325,438</u>

† The sums granted in 1813 were thus distinguished:—

Protestant Dissenting Ministers in England	£1,651	14	0	£	s.	d.
Idem	753	12	6	—	2,369	6 6
Idem						
Relief of the French Refugee Clergy					1,718	4 0
Relief of the . . . Idem Laity					4,600	0 0
					<u>£8,687</u>	<u>10 6</u>

The Munificence of Parliament manifested by Compensation to Sufferers for Losses sustained by the Ravages of the Enemy,—by Fire,—by a Volcanic Eruption, &c.

Granted for relief of the sufferers in Barbadoes in October 1780	£80,000
Idem Idem in Jamaica Idem	40,000
To the sufferers in the island of Dominica, in consequence of the damages sustained by the ravages of the French when the colony was invaded in the year 1805—granted in 1808	50,000
To the sufferers in the island of Trinidad by a dreadful fire, which destroyed the town of Port of Spain—granted in 1811 and 1812	50,000
To the sufferers in the island of St. Vincent, in consequence of a volcanic eruption, which laid waste and injured various valuable Estates	25,000
	<u>£245,000</u>

The Munificence and Humanity of Parliament manifested by the Relief afforded to the Suffering Clergy and Laity of France, driven from their Homes by the Atrocities committed in the Progress of the French Revolution, and also to other Foreigners.

Granted by Parliament in 9 years, from 1794 to 1802 inclusive	£1,813,347
Further Grants . . . in 11 years, from 1808 to 1813 inclusive, including the St. Domingo sufferers, Toulonese sufferers, Dutch and Corsican emigrants, and a small remnant of the American Loyalists	†1,824,177
	<u>3,637,524</u>
To which add further sums granted for the relief of the Danish Faro Islands in 1809	£1,550
Idem for relief of the Danish Settlements in Davis's Straits in 1809 and 1812	16,939—
	<u>18,489</u>
	<u>£3,656,013</u>
To which also may be added the Grant of Parliament in 1811 to the sufferers in Portugal, in consequence of the ravages of the French during their invasion and retreat from that country	100,000
Also the further Grant of Parliament to the suffering Russians, in consequence of the losses and distresses occasioned by the French invasion and retreat in 1812—granted in 1813	200,000
	<u>£3,956,013</u>

† The following sums were granted in 1813:—

For relief of the suffering Clergy and Laity of France	£123,000
Idem . . . American Loyalists	19,000
Idem . . . St. Domingo Sufferers	6,000
Idem . . . Toulonese and Corsican Emigrants	11,500
Idem . . . French and Corsican Emigrants	4,000
Idem . . . Dutch Emigrants	3,500
Idem . . . French Emigrants in Jersey and Guernsey	3,400
	<u>£170,400</u>

All Europe, and indeed the whole of the civilized world will read with astonishment the instances of the liberality of the British nation which are thus disclosed; that nearly four millions should be expended, drawn from the national resources for the support of strangers, the chief part natives of countries in hostility to Great Britain, and without the shadow of a claim on the justice or liberality of this country. But this is not all.

The individuals of the nation, feeling acutely for the distresses of suffering humanity, nobly came forward, and forgetting for the moment their own pecuniary pressures, occasioned by a war of twenty years, contributed nearly one hundred thousand pounds more to alleviate the distresses of the sufferers in Portugal and Spain in 1811, and about the like sum for the relief of his Imperial Majesty's subjects in Russia, whose dwellings and property had been destroyed during the invasion of that country by the Ruler of France in 1812.

The subsequent distresses in Germany, arising from the war being transferred to that country in 1813, produced another appeal to British humanity, when about £20,000 were subscribed for the assistance of Hanover, the Hanse Towns, and parts adjacent, which has been followed up by additional voluntary contributions from private individuals in 1814, extending to nearly £80,000 more for the relief of the sufferers at Hamburgh, Leipsic, Dresden, and other districts in the north of Germany, Holstein, &c. embracing all towns and villages where the ravages of the common enemy had produced distress.

Making in the whole £300,000 from the national benevolence, and the same sum from the humanity and liberality of individuals in the course of less than three years: total £600,000 sterling!

INTEREST PAID ON OUTSTANDING EXCHEQUER BILLS.

1799	£324,108	Brought over	£7,552,400
1800	784,819	1807	2,574,361
1801	1,121,890	1808	1,610,562
1802	1,105,935	1809	1,862,943
1803	801,787	1810	1,815,105
1804	624,859	1811	1,556,735
1805	1,478,316	1812	1,835,369
1806	1,310,686	1813	1,800,000
		1814	1,939,780
Continued	£7,552,400	Granted in	
		Idem 5th and 28th March	
		Total	£21,547,255

BANK OF ENGLAND.

Payments to the Bank of England for management of the National Debt, and Miscellaneous Expences, from the 5th January 1802 to 5th January 1813.

YEAR ENDED 5TH JANUARY 1802.

For receiving Contributions to Annuities for raising £20,500,000 for the service of the year 1800	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	16,518
For . Idem . of £28,000,000 for the service of the year 1801	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	22,562
For discount on prompt payments, on Loan of £20,500,000 for the service of the year 1800	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	176,672
For . Idem . £28,000,000 for Idem 1801	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	457,893
For receiving Contributions to Lottery 1800	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	1,000
For discount on prompt payments thereon	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	658
For Charges of management of the National Debt	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	236,772— 912,075

YEAR ENDED 5TH JANUARY 1803.

For receiving Contributions to Lottery 1801	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	1,000
For discount on prompt payments thereon	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	620
For receiving Contributions to Annuities for raising £25,000,000 for the service of the year 1802	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	20,144
For discount on prompt payments thereon	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	19,774
For receiving £50 per cent. on the amount of Exchequer Bills funded	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	2,393
For discount on prompt payments thereon	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	2,789
For charges of management of the National Debt	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	263,105— 309,825

YEAR ENDED 5TH JANUARY 1804.

For receiving Contributions to Lotteries 1802	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	3,000
For discount on prompt payments thereon	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	1,541
For charges of management of the National Debt	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	247,538— 252,079

YEAR ENDED 5TH JANUARY 1805.

For discount on prompt payments on Loan £12,000,000	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	35,978
For receiving the above Loan	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	9,669
For receiving Contribution to Lotteries 1803	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	3,000
For discount on prompt payments thereon	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	1,534
For charges of management of the National Debt	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	267,786— 317,967

Continued £1,791,946

AND PUBLIC EXPENDITURE.

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Brought up £1,791,946

YEAR ENDED 5TH JANUARY 1806.

	£	
For discount on prompt payments on Loan £14,500,000	222,851	
For receiving the above Loan	11,683	
For receiving Contributions to Lotteries 1804-5	4,000	
For discount on prompt payments thereon in 1804-5	4,589	
For receiving Loan of £1,005,290 0s. 2d. for paying off Loyalty £5 per Cents. 1797,	810	
at 5th April 1805	271,911—	515,844
For charges of management of the National Debt		

YEAR ENDED 5TH JANUARY 1807.

For discount on prompt payments on Loan £22,500,000 A°. 1805	374,513	
For receiving the above Loan	18,130	
For receiving Loan of £521,409 6s. 1d. to pay off £5 per Cents. 10th October 1805	420	
For discount on prompt payments on Lotteries	3,048	
For receiving Contributions to ditto	2,000	
For charges of management of the National Debt	292,127—	690,238

YEAR ENDED 5TH JANUARY 1808.

For discount on prompt payments on Loan £20,000,000 A°. 1806	251,672	
For receiving the above Loan	16,115	
For discount on prompt payments on Lotteries 1806-7	2,571	
For receiving Contributions to ditto	5,000	
For charges of management of the National Debt	297,757—	573,115

YEAR ENDED 5TH JANUARY 1809.

For discount on prompt payments on second and third Lotteries	1807	1,441	
For receiving Contributions to ditto	Idem	2,000	
For discount on prompt payments on Loan £14,200,000	Idem	79,526	
For receiving the above Loan	Idem	11,442	
For discount on prompt payments on Loan £1,500,000	Idem	30,201	
For receiving the above Loan	Idem	1,208	
For charges of management of the National Debt		210,549—	336,367

YEAR ENDING 5TH JANUARY 1810.

For discount on prompt payments on 1st, 2d, and 3d Lotteries	1808	3,532	
For receiving Contributions to ditto	Idem	3,000	
For discount on prompt payment on Loan £10,500,000	Idem	25,931	
For receiving the above Loan	Idem	8,400	
For charges of management of the National Debt		222,775—	263,638
		Continued	£4,171,148

ON THE PUBLIC INCOME

Brought up £4,171,148

YEAR ENDED 5TH JANUARY 1811.

		£
For management of Life Annuities	1809 and 1810	206
For discount on prompt payments on the Lotteries	1809	2,827
For receiving Contributions to	Idem	3,000
For discount on prompt payments on Loan £14,600,000 for 1809		35,963
For receiving	Idem	11,680
For charges of management of the National Debt		217,825— 271,501

YEAR ENDED 5TH JANUARY 1812.

For discount on prompt payments on Loan £12,000,000	anno 1810	11,418
On Loan of £1,400,000 for the service of Ireland	anno 1810	837
On Loan of £4,981,300	anno 1811	67,964
On Lotteries	anno 1810	1,613
For receiving Loan £12,000,000	Idem	9,600
£1,400,000 for the service of Ireland	Idem	1,120
£4,981,300	Idem 1811	3,985
Lotteries	anno 1810	4,000
For management of Life Annuities	1811	369
For charges of management of the National Debt		228,349— 329,255

YEAR ENDED 5TH JANUARY 1813.

For management on Life Annuities	1812	462
For discount on prompt payments on Loan £12,000,000	anno 1811	65,156
Idem on Loan £6,789,625	anno 1812	140,849
For receiving Loan £12,000,000	anno 1811	9,600
Idem £6,789,625	anno 1812	5,431
Discount on Lotteries	1811	2,962
For receiving idem		4,000
For charges of management of the National Debt		233,705— 462,165

£5,234,069

To which is to be added various sums paid to the Governor and Company of the Bank of England for Interest on Exchequer Bills issued on the Land and Malt Taxes and Personal

Estates, from 1802 to 1807 inclusive, amounting to 757,199

Chief Cashier of the Bank of England to pay Fees in sundry public offices respecting his

Accounts of the Bank Annuities, from 1801 to 1813 12,234

Total from 1801 to 1812 inclusive, being a period of 12 years £6,003,502

EAST INDIA COMPANY.

Granted to the East India Company for expences incurred by them from 1760 to 1813 inclusive, in protecting and defending those territories which they call their own, and over which they exercise sovereign control	£6,540,000
Loans raised for the service of the East India Company £1,500,000 by the Act 50 Geo. III. Cap. 114, and £2,500,000 by 52 Geo. III. Cap. 85	4,000,000
Granted to T. N. Wittwer, Esq. for examining Accounts between the East India Company and Government, in 1809, 1812, and 1813	2,186
Total	<u>£10,542,186</u>

*THE MUNIFICENCE OF THE SOVEREIGN AND THE NATION EXEMPLIFIED IN
REWARDS TO PERSONS IN CIVIL SITUATIONS FOR PUBLIC SERVICES AND
COMPENSATIONS FOR PRIVILEGES RELINQUISHED, &c.*

	Paid out of the Consolidated Fund.	Paid out of the Revenue of the Excise.	Paid out of the Revenue of the Post Office.	Total
Duke of Grafton	£4,580	£9,000	£4,700	£18,280
Earl Cowper		2,000		
Charles Boone, Esq. Moiety of the Earl of Bath's		1,500		
Lord Melbourne Idem		1,500		
Representatives of Arthur Onslow, Esq. for public services	3,000	<u>£14,000</u>		
Duke of Richmond—compensation for a privilege relinquished	6,333			
Duke of Athol	3,151			
Duke of Portland and others for the House of Orange	16,000	— And in the year 1803		£60,000
Earl of Chatham for public services	4,000			
John Penn, Esq. compensation for losses in Pennsylvania	3,000			
Richard Penn, Esq. Idem Idem	1,000			
Honourable Jane Perceval	2,000	— And for the use of the 12 children of the late Right Hon. Spencer Perceval		£50,000
Marquess of Bute, late one of the Auditors of Imprest	7,000			
Philip Deare, Esq. late Deputy to Idem	300			

RETIRED JUDGES.

Lord Erskine, Lord Chancellor	4,000		
Sir Soulden Lawrence, Knt.	2,000		
Sir Nash Grose, Knt.	2,000		
Sir Archibald Macdonald, late Chief Baron	2,500		
Sir James Mansfield, late Chief Justice	3,000		
	<u>£63,864</u>		
Pensions paid out of the Revenues of Customs and Excise as above	18,700		
Total Pensions	<u>£82,564</u>	— And	<u>£110,000</u>
	<u>112</u>		

**SALARIES OF THE JUDGES OF THE COURTS OF VICE-ADMIRALTY IN
THE COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.**

NOVA SCOTIA—Alexander Croke, Esq.	£2,000
MALTA—John Sewell, Esq.	2,000
WEST INDIES.	
JAMAICA—Henry John Hinchliffe, Esq.	£2,000
BARBADOES—John Woodfield Compton, Esq.	2,000
BAHAMAS—Henry Moreton Dyer, Esq.	2,000
BERMUDAS—William Territ, Esq.	2,000—
	8,000
	<u>£12,000</u>

**THE MUNIFICENCE OF THE SOVEREIGN AND THE NATION FURTHER EXEMPLIFIED
IN REWARDS TO THE BRAVE OFFICERS, WHO HAVE DISTINGUISHED THEM-
SELVES IN THE NAVAL AND MILITARY SERVICE OF THEIR COUNTRY, AND FOR
OTHER PURPOSES CONNECTED WITH THE WARS.**

	Paid out of the Consolidated Fund. £	Paid out of the Revenue of the Post Office.
Heirs of the late Duke of Schomberg, a pension		£4,000
Duke of Marlborough Idem		5,000
Representatives of the late Lord Heathfield Idem	1,500	<u>£9,000</u>
Idem Idem Lord Rodney Idem	2,923	
Lady Dorchester, widow of Lord Dorchester Idem	1,000	
Representatives of the late Lord Amherst Idem	3,000	
Earl St. Vincent Idem	2,000	
Representatives of the late Lord Duncan Idem	2,000	
Sir W. Sydney Smith Idem	1,000	
Baroness Abercrombie, widow of Sir Ralph Abercrombie Idem	2,000	
Lord Hutchinson Idem	2,000	
Sir James Saumarez, Bart. Idem	1,200	
Sir Richard Strahan, Bart. Idem	1,000	
Admiral Lord Viscount Nelson, as a mark of the gratitude of his country for his early services a pension of £2,000		
For services performed in Egypt a Peerage		
For services in the Baltic a higher Peerage		
To his family for his brilliant victory of Tra- falgar, where he gloriously fell in the service of his country, viz.—		
Lady Viscountess Nelson, his widow, a pension	2,000	
Earl Nelson, his brother and representative, a peerage and a pension 5,000—		{ And for the purchase of an estate Including £10,000 for enabling him to form an establishment suitable to his dignity } £100,000
Mrs. Susanna Bolton and Mrs. Catherine Matcham, his sisters, £10,000 each		
		20,000
	<u>£26,623</u>	
Continued		Continued <u>£120,000</u>

AND PUBLIC EXPENDITURE.

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Paid out of the Consolidated Fund.			
Brought over		£26,623	Brought over £120,000
To the Officers and Seamen who served in the battle of Trafalgar			300,000
Lady Collingwood, widow of Lord Collingwood, a pension		1,000	
Honourable Sarah Collingwood	Idem	500	
Honourable Mary Patience Collingwood	Idem	500	
Sir John Thomas Duckworth	Idem	1,000	
Sir John Stewart, Knt.	Idem	1,000	
Representatives of Lord Lake	Idem	2,000	
Marquess Wellington—for distinguished public services, a Peerage and a Pension	4,000—		{ And for the purchase of an Estate 100,000 { Interest on Idem 2,280
		£36,623	
Pensions paid out of the Revenue of the Post-office, as above,		9,000	
Total Pensions		£45,623—	And £522,280

Besides these acts of national benevolence, a regular pension, according to the rank of the deceased, is granted to the widow of every naval and military officer whose life is lost in the service of his country; while in cases where particular officers eminently distinguish themselves, an addition is made to the ordinary pension.

Munificence of Parliament manifested by Grants for Public Monuments, recording the Merits of Distinguished Officers, who died in Battle or in the Service of their Country, including the Monument of that distinguished Statesman the Right Hon. William Pitt.

Granted in consequence of addresses to the Sovereign for erecting Monuments to the memory of the following eminent persons, viz.—

	Captain Faulkener	in 1801	£4,440
	Captain Burgess	Idem	5,544
	Captains Harvey and Hutt	Idem	3,336
	Captain James Montague	in 1803	3,889
	Captain Westcott	Idem	4,441
	Captains Mosse and Riou	Idem	4,441
2 instalments	Admiral Earl Howe	Idem	4,432
Idem	Right Hon. Sir Ralph Abercrombie	Idem	6,648
Idem	Major-General Dundas	in 1804	2,225
Idem	Marquis Cornwallis	in 1808	4,434
1st instalment	Captain George Duff	Idem	561
Idem	Lord Viscount Nelson	Idem	2,217
Idem	Captain John Cooke	Idem	561
Idem	Right Hon. William Pitt	Idem	2,217
Idem	Captain Harding	in 1811	538
Idem	Sir John Moore	Idem	1,444
			£51,368

✂ The monuments previous to the year 1801, not being specified in the statutes or finance reports, have not been accessible to the author, besides several others recently voted to the memory of distinguished officers not yet finished.

**MUNIFICENCE OF PARLIAMENT MANIFESTED BY PUBLIC
FUNERALS, &c.**

Granted for the expences of the Public Funeral of Lord Viscount Nelson in 1806	£14,769
Granted for the expences of the Public Funeral of the Right Hon. William Pitt in 1806	6,045
Granted for the purpose of discharging the Debts of the Right Honourable William Pitt, as a testimony of the national gratitude for the eminent services of that great and disinterested Statesman	1806 . . 41,010
	£61,824

His Majesty's reign has been particularly distinguished by numerous instances of munificence and generosity. No sovereign or nation on earth has ever manifested such instances of gratitude and liberality to the heroes of the country who have distinguished themselves in its wars, or to the statesman by whose great talents and distinguished exertions eminent services have been rendered to the State. Nor is this liberality confined to the living, it extends in many instances to the heirs and representatives of the deceased, and even to the widows and orphans of all officers who have lost their lives in the service of their country. The gratitude of the nation does not even stop here. It extends to the silent mansions of the dead, manifested by public funerals and by monuments of exquisite workmanship erected to the memory of those distinguished heroes, whose skill and valour as commanders have augmented the glory of their country; thus handing down to the latest posterity the record of their great achievements to stimulate future statesmen and warriors, engaged in the service of their country, not only to maintain and preserve the high rank it sustains, but to add fresh laurels to those which have been already acquired.

**MUNIFICENCE OF THE BRITISH NATION MANIFESTED IN LOANS AND SUBSIDIES
TO OTHER COUNTRIES IN CONTINENTAL EUROPE, TO ENABLE THEM TO RESIST
THE ENCROACHMENTS OF FRENCH TYRANNY AND AGGRESSION.**

PRUSSIA.

Subsidy to the King of Prussia, pursuant to Treaty in 1760	£670,000
Advanced Idem . . . by a Parliamentary Grant in 1807	180,000 £
One third of the Subsidy of £2,500,000 granted in 1813	833,333— 1,683,333

Continued

AND PUBLIC EXPENDITURE.

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Brought up £1,683,333

GERMANY.

Loan to the Emperor of Germany, raised under the 35 Geo. III. Cap. 93, in 1795	£4,600,000	
Idem Idem Idem 37 Geo. III. Cap. 59, in 1797	1,620,000	
For payment of Bills and Advances on account of the Austrian Government in 1809	850,000—	7,070,000

PORTUGAL.

Granted for the Queen in Portugal £500,000 in 1797, and £300,000 in 1801	£800,000	
Advanced as a Loan to the Prince Regent of Portugal by a Parliamentary Grant in 1809	600,000	
Subsidy to Portugal, in 1810	980,000	
Granted for Portuguese troops £2,000,000 in each of the years 1811, 1812, and 1813	6,000,000—	8,380,000

SPAIN.

Advances by the payment of Bills drawn in 1810, for the service of the Supreme Junta of the Government of Cadiz	£387,924	
Estimated value of Dollars advanced to the Spanish Government by Mr. Wellesley, in 1811	157,582	
Estimated value of Advances under the direction of his Majesty's Minister at Cadiz, in 1812	1,000,000	
Value of Arms and Stores supplied by the Board of Ordnance in 1812	424,494	
Idem Clothing, &c. by the Commissary in Chief and Storekeeper General Idem	652,740	
Idem Provisions by the Commissioners of Victualling	15,091—	2,637,831
Estimated value of Stores sent to Spain and Portugal in 1811, blended together in the Public Accounts		673,441

SWEDEN.

Granted to enable his Majesty to fulfil his engagements with the King of Sweden in 1808	£1,100,000	
Granted to make good Advances made to the King of Sweden in 1809	300,000	
Amount of Bills drawn from Sweden in 1812	178,289	
Advances to the Agents of the Swedish Government in this country Idem	100,002	
Value of Articles supplied by the Commissary in Chief	28,445	
Granted to make good the engagements which his Majesty has entered into with the King of Sweden, in 1813	1,000,000—	2,706,673

SICILY.

Subsidies granted to his Sicilian Majesty, £300,000 in 1808, and £400,000 per annum in 1809, 1810, 1811, 1812, and 1813	2,300,000	
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Continued £25,451,341

ON THE PUBLIC INCOME

Brought up £25,451,351

RUSSIA.

Value of Arms, &c. supplied by the Board of Ordnance	in 1812	£285,675	
Idem Bark supplied by the Commissary in Chief	Idem	562	
Two-thirds of the Subsidy of £2,500,000 granted in 1813		1,666,666	1,952,903

EMPEROR OF MOROCCO.

Value of Arms and Stores supplied by the Ordnance Department in 1812	1,952
Total	£27,406,196

PARLIAMENTARY GRANTS FOR MISCELLANEOUS PUBLIC SERVICES.

Granted for discharging the Claims on the Lovat Estate in 1760	£38,553
Granted to the Bank of England for receiving the deficient Gold Coin in 1775	66,846
Granted to Mr. Richardson for his discovery of the Effects of Mr. Manning—1775	550
Granted to the Officers of the Board of Works for surveying the Damages occasioned by the Riots in 1780	4,006
Granted to the Sons of the late Bey of Algiers in 1791	6,762
Granted to the Settlers in this kingdom from Nova Scotia in 1793	1,420
Granted to Sir George Yonge to repay expences on his recal to England, in 1803	1,060
Granted to J. T. Groves, Esq. for the removal of Monuments in Westminster Abbey in 1808	661
Granted to Mr. N. C. Dobree for bringing the Treaties between Sweden and Russia in 1813	520
Granted for Charges heretofore paid out of the proceeds of old Naval Stores in 1812 and 1813	15,868
Granted for making and publishing in the London Gazette Weekly Returns of the Average Price of Sugar, from 1796 to 1813 inclusive	8,315
Inspector of Tontine Certificates, to defray expences, from 1801 to 1813	8,450
	£153,011

CONCLUSION OF THE CHAPTER.

The details, which are given in the preceding pages of this chapter, will probably be perused with no common degree of interest; since the conclusions, which will naturally be drawn from many of the facts which have been disclosed, may produce results favourable to the future prosperity of the empire at large.

Great beyond all example as the expences of the present and the last war have been, and heavy as the burdens are, which have been imposed for their support, they must be viewed in a different light from all other wars in which this country has been engaged; the object has not been the acquisition of distant colonies, but the actual preservation of the British empire against the galling yoke of a foreign tyrant, the energy of whose mind as well as his whole resources have been directed either immediately or collaterally to the means of destroying the government and constitution of this country, and bringing it under his odious and tyrannical sway. All his measures, during the last sixteen years, have tended to the attainment of this object.

When his immense and expensive preparations for the purpose of invasion failed in 1804 and 1805, by which he vainly hoped to conquer Great Britain and Ireland by fire and sword, he resorted to other expedients,—he made war on most of the nations of Europe, and so far succeeded as to be able ultimately and for a time to dictate laws to the whole. He compelled them to shut their ports against the commerce of this country, in the wild expectation of being able through this medium to force his Majesty's Government to submit to such sacrifices as he should dictate.

Having succeeded so far, his next object was to increase his naval power so as to overpower his Majesty's fleets, and thereby insure the conquest of the British islands. He equipped a powerful fleet at Antwerp, at an enormous expence, after acquiring (what was most dangerous to England) a wet harbour in the British Channel, within thirty hours sail of the River Thames.

His power at one period was so colossal, that he commanded all the European coast from the Adriatic Gulph to the Baltic, with the whole of the seamen in the maritime parts of this vast territory, and the ship-timber and materials equal to the building and equipment of from two to three thousand ships of war. His extensive power, joined to the temper and disposition of his mind, and his bitter enmity against this country, left no room to doubt of his determined resolution to avail himself of these immense resources for the purpose of effecting the conquest and the subjugation of the United Kingdom; while the gigantic nature of his views, and the situation in which he

was at one time placed with respect to the other powers of Europe, all bending under his yoke, generated well grounded apprehensions, that with such means he might ultimately be able to effect his baneful purpose.

Under such alarming circumstances, it became the interest as well as the policy of this country to make the greatest sacrifices. It became a war of self preservation: A war for the protection of every thing that could render even life itself desirable. There was therefore no alternative but to put forth the whole energy of the country. The British nation, availing herself of the resistance of Spain against the diabolical proceeding, which deprived that country of her legitimate sovereign, and compelled the Regent of Portugal to seek an asylum in his transatlantic dominions, brought forward all her resources for the purpose of assisting these oppressed countries, and of holding out an example to afflicted Europe.

The expence has been enormous, the blood and treasure expended have been great beyond all former wars; but the object to be attained was of the most momentous nature: no less than the future existence of the country, which could scarcely be purchased at too high a price.

The result of this most tremendous struggle under Providence has been glorious to the British arms. It has brightened the prospects, and annihilated the fears of the people. It has secured the nation against those awful calamities, which it has been the misfortune of most of the kingdoms and states of Continental Europe to suffer where the war has raged, and where fire, pestilence, famine, and the sword have reduced the unhappy people to the greatest extreme of human misery. Even France herself, that sacred territory which no hostile power on earth could dare to touch, has become the victim to this dreadful scourge. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland alone has been exempted. She has indeed sacrificed much of the best blood of the nation, and an immense treasure in distant countries; but such sacrifices had become indispensably necessary.

Out of this war for self-preservation other expences to a great amount were generated, which did not relate to the equipment and pay of the navy and army; but which for the war would not have occurred, such as barracks, fortifications, pensions to the wounded military, naval asylums, auditors of accounts, benevolences to foreigners in distress, and numerous other expences not necessary during a period of peace,—but which became unavoidable in such a war, so different from all others which preceded it.

But while it raged in other countries, this nation felt its pecuniary burthens only. These burthens under Providence procured for this favoured nation a total exemption from the ravages of the enemy, and the free exercise of the national industry, with an extensive commerce fully protected by the British navy; by which the people have not only been able to sustain the pressure, but actually to become richer in the progress of this great struggle than previous to its commencement.

During a period of war, exhibiting features so perilous, and different from all other wars, it became extremely difficult to control or limit the expences in the naval and military departments, especially such wars as this country has been compelled to wage in the course of the last thirty-eight years:—But there are numerous other branches of public expenditure, which may admit of abridgement with great advantage to the public interest.

It will be seen, that many of the dependencies of the crown have already cost this country enormous sums of money, without any apparent benefit, and with no prospect in future of commercial or other advantage in any respect adequate to the constant drain of money, which is demanded yearly from the parent state for their maintenance, support, and protection.

It will probably also appear on investigation, that not a few of the public institutions have been formed upon plans, calculated to incur an expence far beyond what is necessary to produce those beneficial results for which they were established; and that the pecuniary and other advantages, which have been derived from these unnecessarily expensive institutions, are in some instances more than counterbalanced by the annual sums disbursed for the support of the establishments.

It is anxiously to be hoped, that the expences incurred in public buildings and in acts of benevolence, will now cease to be a burthen upon the finances of the country. With respect to the former, something has been done for posterity during the last thirty years of the present reign, which may be considered as partly at least compensating for the weight of the public debt, which must necessarily fall upon the next generation.

The acts of benevolence to strangers in distress, enormous as the pecuniary sacrifice has been with respect to the American loyalists, and still more to the French clergy and laity, and other foreigners driven from their homes by great revolutionary convulsions, will probably not be a matter of regret; since such sacrifices will scarcely occur in future, and since the generosity, humanity, and liberality manifested on these occasions have justly impressed all Europe and the whole civilized world with the most exalted ideas of the magnanimity and benevolence of the British nation. History will record and hand down these acts of noble and disinterested liberality to the latest posterity, as a bright example to all the civilized nations in the world. It may be fairly asked, what other nation in Europe under the same circumstances, or under any circumstances, would have made the same sacrifices, more especially when it is recollected that the money so bestowed was actually borrowed on the credit of the British Government, and for which the nation pays an interest, which must continue until the debt thus incurred can be discharged.

In a free government, such as is happily the lot of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland to enjoy, great difficulties are experienced with respect to the management of the public expenditure. The ministers of the crown have been

often accused of profusion, when upon a full investigation of the peculiar circumstances under which they have been placed, little blame will be found to attach to their conduct. The same cannot always be said of Parliament, if a judgment can be formed from not a few of the grants of the present reign.

Many of those elevated individuals, who in the course of the present long and auspicious reign have been called upon by his Majesty to exercise the powers of Government, as well as several eminent men in both Houses of Parliament, will be found to have manifested a laudable zeal to remedy the abuses and frauds, which have tended to augment the public expenditure; and various measures have been adopted by the Legislature with a view to this important object on the suggestion of his Majesty's ministers; and considerable expences have been incurred by the establishment of Boards of Commissioners for the purpose of investigating the documents and examining the vouchers of the numerous public accountants, in the naval, military, commissariat, and other departments of the state connected with the public expenditure.

It has already been observed, that the war of the French revolution and the existing war, extending as it has done to every quarter of the habitable globe, have occasioned an expenditure, which in point of magnitude and extent exceeds any thing that history records. To meet this exigency and to protect the nation against waste, fraud, and peculation, on the part of those intrusted with public money, many checks have been established, and much has been done not only for the purpose of detecting peculations and abuses, but also with a view to abridge and economize the public expenditure. In this respect, his Majesty's executive government have not been wanting in attention; but perhaps not with that degree of success, which the nature and importance of the object require.

It has happened, and will always happen in a free government like that of the United Kingdom, that in the organization of designs of this nature, neither the best system that it is possible to devise has been adopted, or that the best selection can be made of the individuals appointed to execute those important duties, without which, and without also *a paramount and completely official superintendence*, that intelligence, knowledge, assiduity, and dispatch, so necessary in all public institutions, which the national interest demands, and which the expence incurred fairly purchases, are scarcely to be hoped for. Unless impelled by the scrutinizing eye of a superior, the attachment which mankind generally have to their ease and personal convenience will in most instances be opposed to unremitting labour, more particularly when no means exist of either discovering or rewarding real and intrinsic merit. Without this stimulus extraordinary exertion is rarely to be found, especially where there is little chance of its attracting the attention of those who have a power to confer rewards.

It should seem upon the whole, that the mode of arranging and keeping the public accounts in general would admit of considerable improvement. They might be so arranged by consolidations of the whole income of the nation, and by more appro-

priate classifications of the different branches of expenditure under distinct heads as to save much labour and expence, while the accounts themselves would be more intelligible. The personal expences of the Sovereign and his family ought perhaps to form a distinct charge, unconnected with the various other expences comprising the Civil List Disbursements, much of which are supposed to be connected with the monarchy, although in fact properly belonging to the necessary splendour of the Court, which every Sovereign is called upon to assume, in order to support the dignity of the nation. In this view, what is called the State Household of the King is a national expence. The same may with greater propriety be said of the salaries and pensions of Ambassadors and Ministers connected with the corps diplomatique. And still more with respect to the allowances to the Judges, and a great variety of other charges paid out of the Civil List, over which the Sovereign exercises no particular control.

There can be no doubt but much might be saved by new modelling the great variety, both of ancient and even modern offices; and by retaining only such as require a degree of labour equal to the remuneration received, granting in the mean time pensions for life to those whose offices or situations may be abolished. Perhaps the expenditure of the nation would admit of a classification similar to what follows:—

1. The Personal Expences of the Sovereign and all the branches of his Royal Family.
2. The Expences incurred in supporting the splendour and dignity of the Crown.
3. The Salaries of his Majesty's Ministers, comprehending the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury, the Secretaries of State, and all the expences of the different establishments, including contingencies.
4. The Diplomatic Expences, including subordinate persons, and also including Pensions to retired Ministers.
5. The Secret Service Money.
6. The expences of Salaries and Contingencies of each of the respective Revenue Boards of Customs, Excise, Stamps, Assessed Taxes, &c. and all other Boards where Revenue is concerned.
7. The Expences of the Military Establishment, including all appendages.
8. The Expences of the Ordnance Establishment . . . Idem.
9. The Expences of the Naval Department . . . Idem.
10. The Expences of each of the Boards instituted for purposes of control, regulation, or inquiry, whether Civil, Naval, or Military.
11. The Expences of the Civil and Criminal Police, Law Charges, &c.
12. The Ecclesiastical Expences defrayed by the Crown.
13. The Expences for the encouragement of Commerce and Manufactures, including Bounties paid from the Treasury, the Customs and Excise, &c.
14. The Expences incurred in Public Buildings, Roads, Harbours, Canals, Fortifications, &c. including repairs.
15. The Expences incurred in Compensations for Losses.

16. The Expences incurred in Rewards for useful Discoveries.
17. The Expences incurred in Rewards to Naval and Military Officers.
18. The Expences incurred in Pensions to individuals in Civil, Military, and Naval Situations, and their heirs, for services done to the State.
19. The Expences incurred in all other Pensions paid out of the general Revenue of the State.
20. The Expences incurred in consequence of public Calamities, suffered by communities or individuals.
21. The Expences incurred in consequence of acts of humanity and benevolence to his Majesty's Subjects and Foreigners in distress.
22. The Expences incurred in managing the Loans, and in the Reduction of the National Debt and Sale of the Land Tax.
23. The Civil, Military, and Naval Expences (as far as is practicable) incurred in supporting and protecting the Colonies and Dependencies of the Crown, viz.—
 24. In Europe.
 25. In North America.
 26. In the West Indies.
 27. In Africa.
 28. In Asia.
28. The Expences incurred in assisting foreign Princes by supplies of Military Stores and Clothing, and in Subsidies.
29. The Amount payable quarterly and yearly for Interest on Funded Property.
30. The Amount of the Interest paid on Exchequer Bills.

The national expences so arranged and brought under the review of Parliament in the simple and intelligible form, which is now humbly suggested, would be productive of incalculable benefit. It would not only prove a great assistance to the Executive Government, but, by being regularly laid before his Majesty's Ministers, it would operate as a restraint upon grants for which the resources of the country were inadequate. The aggregate of each head of expenditure might be so condensed as to place the whole under the eye, on the face of a single sheet of paper. Through this medium, the mind would be led to the specific details in all instances where the expences appeared large and the attention directed to the means of making retrenchments.

In almost all the offices of Government a better and less complicated mode of keeping books and accounts has become a desideratum. The former wars, but still more the present war from 1793, have created such an accumulation of business, that numerous new offices have been established, and old ones augmented, forming a kind of patchwork upon a system of keeping accounts, which had not been originally perfect. Hence the unnecessary multiplication of clerks, in many instances not half employed, or often employed to no purpose:—hence the absence of correct and methodical arrangement:—and hence too not only

the unnecessary expences which are incurred, and the intricacy and often the confusion which pervades the general system, generating delays at times and seasons when facility and dispatch are of the greatest importance.

The anxiety to introduce checks to prevent frauds often defeats the purpose intended, when such checks are not founded on good judgment and experience, and on an accurate knowledge of the nature of accounts. The object no doubt in many instances is attained at last, but it is generally accomplished by describing a circle with the assistance of many labourers, where a straight line would afford all that is required by the same labour performed by a few.

In the complicated affairs of Government, expences often multiply to an immense amount where their progress is unseen and unknown, and where no check is available until it is too late, while much labour is wasted and much expence incurred to attain objects, which from the nature of the system which is adopted is not attainable. In the concerns of a merchant carrying on an extensive trade, or a manufacturer engaged in fabricating numerous articles from the raw materials, if a similar system of accounts were to prevail, neither the one nor the other could be sheltered from bankruptcy for any length of time.

Some of the commissions of accounts have certainly suggested many valuable regulations, particularly those established in 1780; but they are limited to particular branches, and when adopted have proved, in many instances, radically erroneous. As the expenditure of the country increases, the difficulties are augmented, since the system becomes every year more and more complicated,—under circumstances too where simplicity becomes in a greater degree necessary.

The net revenues of England and Wales, at the present time, which	}	£.	s.	d.
passed into the Exchequer, according to the Finance Accounts				
presented to Parliament up to the 5th January 1813				
		55,995,123	5	5½
Those of Scotland Idem Idem		4,155,599	3	11¾
And those of Ireland, converted into British currency . . Idem		4,822,264	13	11½
	Total	£64,972,987	3	4¾

England possesses a great metropolis, which comprises a tenth part of its population,—the chief seat of commerce and manufactures, of the National Bank, and the East India Company, and other large trading bodies. It is also the seat of Government, the Legislature, and the center-point, where a vast proportion of the riches of the whole empire accumulates. It possesses great advantages over the sister kingdoms. Its net revenues, according to the Finance Accounts on the 5th January 1813, amounted as above to £55,995,123 5s. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.

Scotland with a population of less than two millions, and possessing none of these advantages,—whose metropolis does not contain 100,000 persons, and whose whole gross revenue did not exceed £110,694 at the Union in 1707, now accounts to the British Exchequer for £4,155,599 3s. 11½d. a year, after deducting the expences of the civil government.

Ireland, although possessing a metropolis comprising a population of perhaps nearly 200,000 persons, and a soil in proportion to its extent perhaps richer than England, with nearly three times the population of Scotland, and where the soil from its superior fertility ought to yield almost treble the produce, only gives a net revenue of £4,822,264 13s. 11½d.; and yet under apparently less burthens, the resident population appear to be less opulent, and the poor more miserable, than those in Scotland, strongly demonstrating radical defects in the existence of various obstructions to the improvement of that valuable country.

It will be seen from the general Statement of the Public Income and Expenditure of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, inserted in the Table, No. 6, that neither the Land Tax, the Assessed Taxes, nor the Property Tax, have as yet been extended to Ireland. But as the whole revenue of this country only amounted to the gross sum of £558,670 at the period of the Union with Scotland in 1707, and fell to £469,809 in 1723, the increase of the wealth and the population of the country must have been progressive subsequent to that period, since in 1760 it amounted to £731,590. In 1791 it had increased to £1,190,684, and in 1800, when the Union took place, to £2,684,261.

From the Union to the end of the year 1812, the augmentation of the opulence of the country must have been very rapid, as it appears, notwithstanding the exemption from three very productive taxes paid in Great Britain, that the revenue has nearly doubled. After all, Scotland, without possessing in fertility of soil, or in population above one-third of the physical strength of Ireland, actually pays nearly the same revenue to the crown! If this extraordinary difference in the resources of the two countries arises from any political or other advantage which Scotland enjoys, and which Ireland does not possess, such advantages should be extended to that country in as ample a manner as they exist in the Sister Kingdom, that the same system of policy, which has proved so salutary in the one country, may be made to operate in the other with equal advantage to the public revenue, but above all to the moral habits, the industry, and the general happiness of the people.

From what has been already stated in the First Chapter on the subject of Ireland, no doubt can be entertained, when the existing obstructions to its improvement can be clearly ascertained and removed by wise legislative arrangements, that its resources will exceed all calculation, and that its wealth will increase more rapidly than that of Great Britain.

To the wisdom of Parliament the country must look up for those salutary regulations, which shall remove every obstruction in both countries that may be opposed to the means of obtaining from the capital, skill, and labour of the people the greatest possible returns which are attainable;—by giving a proper direction to the industry of the labouring classes, and by such encouragements as shall render it not only universally efficient, but productive to the highest degree that is possible. A part of the public revenue applied yearly in this manner, where revenue is necessary, would under judicious management add much to the riches and resources of the empire.

It is by such arrangements only, that this great nation can support her national debt, and maintain the proud height and high rank which she holds among all the states, kingdoms, and empires in the civilized world.

The reader is particularly referred to the Table, No. 5, annexed to this Chapter, which contains a general statement of the whole income and expenditure of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, for the year ending the 5th January 1813. This statement is formed from the details contained in the public or finance account presented to Parliament, and is therefore founded on official authority, although differently arranged with a view to embrace the whole of this complicated subject in the shortest compass, and to render it intelligible with the least possible trouble to the reader.

Among all the branches of knowledge, which men of education, intelligence, and talents are desirous of acquiring, the subject of public finance is none of the least interesting and useful. To those who execute the office of legislators, this species of knowledge is of the most vital importance; since, as guardians of the public purse, it becomes a moral duty distinctly to understand the finances of the country in all their complicated details.

Should the view, which the author has taken of this important subject, from the earliest periods of our history down to the present time, tend in any degree to render acquirements of this nature desirable, by inducing the well educated part of the community to store their minds with this species of useful knowledge, the public at large may anticipate considerable benefits from the practical effects which it will produce on the improvement of the finances of the country, and the general prosperity of the empire at large.

GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE PUBLIC INCOME AND PUBLIC EXPENDITURE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, FOR THE YEAR ENDED THE 5th January, 1813;

Comprising the Public Revenues, Loans, Interest on Public Monies, and Public Expences incurred in the Army, Navy, Ordnance, Civil List, Mint, and other Departments of the State, Loans to Foreign Countries, and Payments for Miscellaneous Services at Home and Abroad; Distinguishing, as to the Revenues, Great Britain and Ireland.—From the Financial Accounts presented to Parliament.

PUBLIC INCOME.

PUBLIC REVENUES OF GREAT BRITAIN:

CUSTOMS: - - - - -	£ 13,286,231 2 9½	£. s. d.
Deduct Drawbacks, Repayments, and Bounties of the nature of Drawbacks -	1,391,035 12 9½	11,895,195 10 0½
EXCISE - - - - -	£ 24,712,422 0 11½	
Deduct Drawbacks or Exports, Allowances, Overcharges, &c. - - - - -	1,173,486 14 10½	23,538,935 6 1½
Property Tax - - - - -		13,057,824 19 10½
Land Tax - - - - -		1,368,128 5 6½
Assessed Taxes - - - - -		6,091,948 10 2
Income Tax, &c.—Arrears - - - - -		8,273 18 9½
Pensions and Salaries, viz. one shilling in the £ thereon - £ 20,397 8 1½		
Sixpence in the £ Idem - - - - -	17,081 7 1½	37,478 15 2½
STAMPS - - - - -	£ 5,428,811 10 6	
Deduct Discounts and Parliamentary Allowances, Drawbacks on Plate, Returns of Duty, Allowances, &c. - - - - -	128,167 18 11½	5,300,643 11 6½
POST OFFICE - - - - -	£ 1,820,761 1 4	
Deduct Returns, viz. Repayments on Letters post paid, dead, unknown, refused, overcharged Letters, &c. - - - - -	62,510 3 9	1,758,250 17 7
Lottery, being the proportion for Great Britain - - - - -		249,666 13 4
Hackney Coaches - - - - -		27,869 17 6
Hawkers and Pedlars - - - - -		23,141 18 6
Crown Lands - - - - -		69,018 1 10
Alienation Fines, including the Hanaper - - - - -		7,146 6 8
Post Fines - - - - -		1,277 13 1½
Seizures - - - - -		5,741 14 3
Compositions and Profilers - - - - -		632 3 4
Miscellaneous—Surplus Fees of regulated Public Offices - - - - -	£ 84,558 4 5½	
Militia Fines - - - - -	7,706 12 0	
Rent of Alum Mines - - - - -	864 0 0	
Idem a Light House - - - - -	6 13 4	93,135 9 9½
		63,534,309 13 2½

PUBLIC REVENUES OF IRELAND:—

	British Currency.	British Currency.
CUSTOMS - - - - -	£ 2,533,407 13 1½	£. s. d.
Deduct Drawbacks, Repayments, and Overcharges repaid to Merchants - - - - -	76,831 6 1½	2,456,576 6 1½
EXCISE - - - - -	£ 2,266,787 16 10½	
Deduct Repayments, Discount on Wine, Excise, &c. - - - - -	71,078 8 2½	2,195,709 8 7½
STAMPS - - - - -	£ 688,318 19 4	
Deduct Discounts, Allowances, Returns of Duty, &c. - - - - -	12,115 2 4½	676,203 16 11½
POST OFFICE - - - - -	£ 195,395 4 3½	
Deduct Repayments on Letters post paid, dead, unknown, refused, overcharged Letters, &c. - - - - -	17,431 18 11½	177,963 5 4½
Lottery, being the proportion for Ireland - - - - -		116,500 0 0
Poundage Fees - - - - -		23,636 16 6
Pells Fees - - - - -		4,727 6 11½
Casualties - - - - -		5,582 8 6½
Appropriated Duties for Local Objects, viz.—		
Light Houses - - - - -	£ 32,104 1 0	
Improvement of Dublin - - - - -	11,425 10 1	
Lagan Navigation £3,646 7 3½		
Deduct Drawbacks on the Duties - - - - -	2,978 4 7½	668 2 8½

Continued . . £44,197 13 9½ £5,656,899 9 10½
Continued . . . £63,534,309 13 2½

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE.

CHARGES AND PAYMENTS OUT OF THE PUBLIC REVENUES OF GREAT BRITAIN:

CUSTOMS—		£. s. d.
Charges of Management - - - - -	£ 1,080,663 2 4½	
Bounties for promoting National Objects - - - - -	352,834 18 3½	
Miscellaneous Charges and Expences - - - - -	249,065 0 0½	1,682,563 0 8½
EXCISE—		
Charges of Management - - - - -	£ 973,132 19 8½	
Bounties paid in England, Buss and Barrel Bounties, and Bounties on Fish exported from Scotland - - - - -	36,598 11 11½	
Miscellaneous Allowances, Pensions, and Expences - - - - -	150,115 4 3½	1,159,846 15 11
PROPERTY TAX—Charges of Management - - - - -		268,046 10 4½
LAND TAX—		
Charges of Management - - - - -	£ 36,372 2 7½	
Miscellaneous Disbursements, &c. under various Acts of Parliament - - - - -	138,921 17 11½	175,294 0 7½
ASSESSED TAXES—		
Charges of Management - - - - -	£ 267,674 16 5½	
Miscellaneous Disbursements, &c. under various Acts of Parliament - - - - -	31,563 16 9½	299,238 13 2½
INCOME TAX, &c.—Charges of Management - - - - -		74 11 2½
PENSIONS AND SALARIES—		
Charges of Management - - - - -		789 12 8½
STAMPS—		
Charges of Management - - - - -		124,955 19 4½
Parchment, Paper, and Blanks for the use of the Country - - - - -	£ 26,736 4 3	
Miscellaneous Payments - - - - -	34,551 5 10½	186,243 9 6½
POST OFFICE—		
Charges of Management, including the Packets Establishment, and Captured and Extra Packets - - - - -	£ 477,917 18 2	
Parliamentary Grants of Pensions - - - - -	13,700 0 0	491,617 18 2
LOTTERY—Charges of Management, &c. - - - - -		24,354 7 8
HACKNEY COACHES—Charges of Management - - - - -		3,419 17 4½
HAWKERS AND PEDLARS . Idem . . . Idem - - - - -		2,992 0 6
CROWN LANDS—		
Charges of Management - - - - -	£ 2,419 16 7½	
Pensions, Stipends, and Expences incurred in securing and improving His Majesty's Woods and Forests - - - - -	49,174 18 6½	51,594 15 1½
ALIENATION FINES—		
Charges of Management, including 2000 <i>l.</i> paid to the Clerk of the Hanaper in the year ended Hilary Term, 1813 - - - - -		3,147 8 0
POST FINES—Charges of Management of the Green Wax, arising from Post Fines - - - - -		140 2 8
		£ 4,349,363 3 9½

CHARGES AND PAYMENTS OUT OF THE PUBLIC REVENUES OF IRELAND:—

CUSTOMS—	British Currency.	British Currency.
Charges of Management £381,943 2 10½		
Bounties for promoting the Fisheries.		
Linen Manufacture, &c. - - - - -	24,012 18 3½	
Miscellaneous Payments - - - - -	7,491 17 11½	413,447 19 2

Continued.

Continued . . . £ 4,349,363 3 9½

GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE PUBLIC INCOME AND PUBLIC EXPENDITURE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND FOR THE YEAR ENDED THE 5th January, 1813;

Comprising the Public Revenues, Loans, Interest on Public Monies, and Public Expences incurred in the Army, Navy, Ordnance, Civil List, Mint, and other Departments of the State, Loans to Foreign Countries, and Payments for Miscellaneous Services at Home and Abroad;—Distinguishing, as to the Revenues, Great Britain and Ireland. From the Financial Accounts presented to Parliament.

PUBLIC INCOME.

PUBLIC REVENUES OF IRELAND:

	British Currency.	British Currency.	£.	s.	d.
Continued . . .	£44,197 13 9½	5,656,899 9 10½	63,534,309 13 2½		
Repairs of the Royal Exchange and Commercial Buildings . . .	2,045 6 2				
Inns of Court . . .	1,839 16 11½	£.	s.	d.	
Linen Manufacture . . .	242 16 3½	48,325 13 2½			
Monies received on account of Coals sold in the Public Yards in Dublin . . .	590 15 4½	5,705,815 18 5½			
ISLE OF MAN—Customs . . .		6,973 3 1½			
		£69,247,098 14 9½			

CONSOLIDATED FUNDS OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND:—

The Balance, after taking out the Amount for Interest and Management of the National Debt (for which see Public Expenditure) and such part of the foregoing Revenues as are appropriated under sundry Acts of Parliament for certain Payments out of these Funds . . .	251,108 6 7½
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BALANCES &c:—

Balances in the hands of Collectors, Receivers General, &c on the 5th January 1813, and Bills not due until after the same day . . .	2,601,003 4 4½
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LOANS &c:—

Loans paid into the Exchequer of Great Britain (of which £4,350,000 is for the Service of Ireland and £2,500,000 for the East India Company) in the year ended the 5th of January 1813 . . .	£29,268,586 16 8
The following Sums paid into His Majesty's Treasury in Ireland, viz. Loan of £1,500,000 Irish, raised in Ireland, Anno 1812 . . .	1,384,615 7 8½
On Debentures at 5 per Cent per Annum, issued for improving Post Roads in Ireland . . .	12,000 0 0
	30,665,202 4 4½

INTEREST &c:—

Monies paid on account of the Interest of Loans raised for the Service of Ireland . . .	£2,793,313 3 9
Idem on account of the Interest, &c. of a Loan granted to the Prince Regent of Portugal . . .	57,170 3 0
On account of the Commissioners for issuing Exchequer Bills . . .	910,470 0 9
On account of the Commissioners for issuing Exchequer Bills for Grenada, &c. . .	49,000 0 0
On account of the East India Company, in repayment of £1,500,000 . . .	88,000 0 0
	3,897,953 7 6

Grand Total . . . £. 106,662,365 17 7½

MEMORANDA:—

The Amount of Bills issued for the Public Service in the Year ended the 5th January 1813, and not redeemed within that period was as follows:—

Exchequer Bills . . .	£41,146,517 18 11½
Navy and Victualling Bills . . .	2,572,528 16 1
Transport Bills . . .	696,899 11 4
	44,415,946 6 4½

Appropriated Balances in both Exchequers on the 5th January, 1813 . . .	£11,297,562 12 1½
Unappropriated Balances in the Exchequer of Ireland on the 5th January 1813, £1,359,673 8 7½ Irish, in British Currency . . .	1,255,083 3 4
	12,552,645 15 5½

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE.

CHARGES AND PAYMENTS OUT OF THE PUBLIC REVENUES OF IRELAND.

	British Currency.	British Currency.	£.	s.	d.
Continued . . .	£413,447 19 2		4,349,363 3 9½		
Excise:— Charges of Management . . .	£305,478 13 8½				
Bounties to Retailers of Malt Liquors . . .	24,841 10 9½				
Payments for the Militia and Army of Reserve, Rewards for apprehending Deserters, &c. . .	88,009 5 5½	418,329 9 11			

STAMPS:—

Charges of Management . . .	£43,366 16 9½				
Miscellaneous Payments . . .	441 16 9½	43,808 13 6½			
Post Office—Charges of Management . . .	95,444 0 0				
Lagan Navigation—Allowances to Officers for receiving the net Duties . . .	33 8 2	971,063 10 9½			

INTEREST &c. ON THE NATIONAL DEBT:—

Interest, &c. on the Permanent Debt of Great Britain Unredeemed, including Annuities for Lives and Terms of Years . . .	£20,680,025 15 7½
Interest &c. on Loans raised for the Service of Ireland, including Annuities for Lives and Terms of Years . . .	3,333,564 15 2
Interest &c. on Imperial Loans, Idem . . .	417,581 6 4
Idem . . . on Portuguese Loans Idem . . .	22,873 13 0
Charges of Management on the permanent Debt of Great Britain unredeemed, and on the above mentioned Loans . . .	236,460 1 1½
	24,690,505 11 2½

REDUCTION OF THE NATIONAL DEBT:—

Annual Issues for the Reduction of the National Debt . . .	£1,262,445 6 6½
Interest on Debt of Great Britain, redeemed Idem . . . Idem of Ireland . . . do. . .	5,974,206 8 1
Idem . . . on Imperial Debt redeemed . . .	463,728 6 10½
Idem . . . Portugal . . . do. . .	37,497 13 8
	3,992 0 5
Annuity at £1 per Cent on part of Capitals created since 5th of January 1793, in Great Britain . . .	5,173,965 15 6½
Appropriation of £1 per Cent per annum on Loans since 1797 for the Service of Ireland . . .	864,233 2 6½
Annuities for Lives expired, unclaimed for 3 Years, &c. . .	182,127 7 11
Part of the annual appropriation for the Redemption of £12,000,000 part of £14,200,000 Loan 1807 . . .	626,255 10 5
Interest on Capitals transferred for Life Annuities at £3 per Cent . . .	51,108 16 4
Amount applied towards the Redemption of the Debt created in respect of £2,500,000 on account of the East India Company in 1812 . . .	27,705 0 0
	14,667,265 8 4½

INTEREST ON EXCHEQUER BILLS (Great Britain and Ireland) 1,924,165 13 8½

CIVIL LIST, &c:—

For the Support of His Majesty's Household . . .	£1,019,538 9 3
Civil Government of Scotland . . .	112,748 2 7
Civil List of Ireland . . .	132,045 7 5½
Courts of Justice . . .	73,758 17 10½
Allowances to the Royal Family, Pensions, &c. . .	416,102 5 4
Sallaries, Allowances, and Permanent Charges . . .	291,978 8 1½
Bounties, &c. for promoting National Objects . . .	125,224 5 4½
	2,171,395 15 11½

MINT:—

The Master of His Majesty's Mint and the Receiver of Fees and Emoluments in the Office of the Mint in England, and the Master of His Majesty's Mint in Scotland . . .	14,770 1 6
Continued . . .	£48,788,529 5 5

GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE PUBLIC INCOME AND PUBLIC EXPENDITURE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, FOR THE YEAR ENDED THE 5th January, 1813;

Comprising the Public Revenues, Loans, Interest on Public Monies, and Public Expences incurred in the Army, Navy, Ordnance, Civil List, Mint, and other Departments of the State, Loans to Foreign Countries, and Payments for Miscellaneous Services at Home and Abroad; Distinguishing, as to the Revenues, Great Britain and Ireland.—From the Financial Accounts presented to Parliament.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE.

	Continued	£.	s.	d.
ARMY:— <i>Ordinary Services</i> , viz.		48,788,529	5	5
Pay, Allowances, Clothing, &c. for Regulars, Fencibles, Militia, Invalids, Volunteer Corps, Chaplains, Recruiting, &c. and Supernumerary Officers; Supernumeraries in Ireland excepted, which are mentioned in another place	£.	12,639,242	15	0½
Commissariat	s.	3,450,879	6	11
Barracks	d.	822,494	4	5½
Staff Officers and Officers of Garrisons in Ireland		80,211	11	8½
Half Pay and Military Allowances		172,199	13	8
Half Pay, Supernumerary and retired Officers in Ireland		24,742	16	1½
Pensions to Officers' Widows and Compassionate List		62,492	17	10½
Chelsea Hospital.		456,450	15	4
Royal Hospital at Kilmainham		74,135	8	1½
Pay of Public Officers, their Deputies, Clerks and Contingent Expences		177,499	13	2½
Superannuated Officers in Ireland		4,029	6	4
Miscellaneous Payments, including Medicine and Hospital Incidents, Baggage, &c. and Contingencies		247,202	15	11
		£ 18,211,581	4	9½
<i>Extraordinary Services</i>		12,653,352	2	8½
		£ 30,864,933	7	5½
Deduct the Amount of Remittances and Advances to other Countries		2,915,528	3	7½
		—27,949,405	3	10½
NAVY:—				
Wages of Officers and Seamen	£	2,976,000	0	0
Half Pay to Sea Officers and Bounties to Chaplains		332,000	0	0
Wages to His Majesty's Dock and Rope Yards		1,264,000	0	0
Building of Ships, purchase of Stores of every description, repairing of Ships, Purchase of Ships taken from the Enemy, Head-Money, &c.		4,805,529	2	5
Salaries, Pensions, Bills of Exchange, Imprests, &c.		1,628,000	0	0
		£ 11,005,529	2	5
Victualling Department, viz.	£.		s.	d.
Provisions and all sorts of Victualling				
Stores		4,371,434	2	9
Bills of Exchange and Imprests		950,000	0	0
Necessary and Extra Necessary Money and Contingencies		337,000	0	0
Widows' Pensions		43,747	6	9
		—5,702,181	9	6
Transport Department, viz.				
Freight of Transports, Maintenance of Prisoners of War, and Expences of Sick and Wounded Seamen	£	3,358,628	15	1
Miscellaneous Services, including Bills of Exchange		434,000	0	0
		—3,792,628	15	1
		20,500,339	7	0
ORDNANCE:—				
Services at Home	£	4,451,060	4	11
Idem . . . Abroad		660,021	17	9
Charge of the Office of Ordnance in Ireland		459,885	18	2
Pay of Retired Officers, and Pensions to Widows of Deceased Officers of the late Irish Artillery, and Superannuated and Retired Allowances to Persons late belonging to the Office of Ordnance in Ireland		15,080	11	11½
		£ 5,586,048	12	9½
Deduct the Value of Stores supplied by the Board of Ordnance to Foreign Powers, charged in another place		858,672	6	9
		—4,727,376	6	0½
	Continued	£ 101,965,650	2	3½

GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE PUBLIC INCOME AND PUBLIC EXPENDITURE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, FOR THE YEAR ENDED THE 5th January 1813;

Comprising the Public Revenues, Loans, Interest on Public Monies, and Public Expences incurred in the Army, Navy, Ordnance, Civil List, Mint, and other Departments of the State, Loans to Foreign Countries, and Payments for Miscellaneous Services at Home and Abroad; Distinguishing, as to the Revenues, Great Britain and Ireland.—From the Financial Accounts presented to Parliament.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE.

Continued	£.	s.	d.
	101,965,650	2	3½
LOANS, REMITTANCES, AND ADVANCES TO OTHER COUNTRIES:—			
Portugal	£ 2,228,276	9	10
Spain	2,092,325	16	6½
Sicily	400,000	0	0
Sweden	306,736	4	5
Russia	286,237	10	3
Morocco	1,952	2	7
	5,315,528	3	7½
MISCELLANEOUS SERVICES:—			
Public Services, Compensations, and Payments for the promotion of National Objects at Home.	£ 4,870,023	16	7½
The same Abroad	293,965	1	10
	5,163,988	18	5½
Amount of Payments from the Vote of Credit in Ireland	30,952	2	3
	£ 112,476,119	6	7½
Deduct—			
Interest, and £1 per Cent on Portuguese Loan	£ 57,170	3	0
Sinking Fund on Loan to the East India Company	27,705	0	0
	84,875	3	0
Grand Total	£ 112,391,244	3	7½

GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE PUBLIC INCOME AND PUBLIC EXPENDITURE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, FOR THE YEAR ENDED THE 5th January 1813;

Comprising the Public Revenues, Loans, Interest on Public Monies, and Public Expences incurred in the Army, Navy, Ordnance, Civil List, Mint, and other Departments of the State, Loans to Foreign Countries, and Payments for Miscellaneous Services at Home and Abroad; Distinguishing, as to the Revenues, Great Britain and Ireland.—From the Financial Accounts presented to Parliament.

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION

OF THE

PUBLIC REVENUES,

	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	Great Britain and Ireland.
Customs - - - - -	£ 11,037,451 1 10½	£ 857,744 8 2	£ 2,456,576 6 11½	£ 14,351,771 17 0
Excise - - - - -	21,812,034 11 5	1,726,900 14 8½	2,195,709 8 7½	25,734,644 14 9½
Property Tax - - - - -	12,091,034 5 6½	966,790 14 4	- - - - -	13,057,824 19 10½
Land Tax - - - - -	1,343,576 15 2¼	24,551 10 4¼	- - - - -	1,368,128 5 6½
Assessed Taxes - - - - -	5,678,970 10 2¼	412,977 19 11¼	- - - - -	6,091,948 10 2
Stamps - - - - -	4,952,120 9 1¾	348,523 2 5	676,203 16 11¼	5,976,847 8 6
Post Office - - - - -	† 1,590,372 19 7	167,877 18 0	177,963 5 4½	1,936,214 2 11½
Miscellaneous - - - - -	508,856 2 7¼	14,526 9 8¼	199,363 0 6¾	722,745 12 10¼
Gross - - - - -	£ 59,014,416 15 6½	£ 4,519,892 17 7¼	£ 5,705,815 18 5¼	£ 69,240,125 11 8
Off Charges of Management and Compensations and Allowance to Superannuated, and Retired Offi- cers. }	3,019,293 10 1	364,293 13 8	883,551 4 6¼	4,267,138 8 3¼
Net - - - - -	£ 55,995,123 5 5½	£ 4,155,599 3 11¼	£ 4,822,264 13 11½	£ 64,972,987 3 4¼

AGGREGATE

PUBLIC INCOME—Year ended 5th January 1813.—PUBLIC EXPENDITURE.

Public Revenues, viz.	Net.	£.	s.	d.
England and Wales - - - - -	£55,995,123 5 5½			
Scotland - - - - -	4,155,599 3 11¼			
Ireland - - - - -	4,822,264 13 11½			
Isle of Man - - - - -	6,973 3 1½	64,979,960	6	6½
Consolidated Funds of Great Britain and Ireland (See the Details)		251,108	6	7½
Balances in the hands of Receivers General, Collectors, &c. and Bills not due until after the 5th January 1813 - - - - -		2,601,003	4	4¼
Loans, &c. paid into the Exchequers of Great Britain and Ireland		30,665,202	4	4½
Interest on Loans raised for the Service of Ireland - - - - -	£2,793,513 3 9			
Idem - - - - - Idem - - - Portugal	57,170 3 0			
Miscellaneous Receipts - - - - -	1,047,470 0 9	3,897,953	7	6
Total - - - - -	£ 102,395,227 9 4½			

NOTE—Bills issued for the Public Service,
and not redeemed within the Year £44,415,946 6 4¼
Balances in the Exchequers of
Great Britain and Ireland, viz.
Appropriated £11,297,562 12 1¼
Unappropriated 1,255,083 3 4 —12,552,645 15 5¼

	£.	s.	d.
Miscellaneous Payments out of the Revenues - - - - -	1,053,288	6	4
Interest, &c. on the National Debt - - - - -	24,690,505	11	2½
Reduction of the National Debt - - - - -	14,667,265	8	4½
Interest on Exchequer Bills (Great Britain and Ireland) - - -	1,924,165	13	8½
Civil List, &c. - - - - -	2,171,395	15	11½
Mint - - - - -	14,770	1	6
Army - - - - -	27,949,405	3	10¼
Navy (including Victualling and Transports) - - - - -	20,500,339	7	0
Ordnance - - - - -	4,727,376	6	0¼
Loans, Remittances, and Advances to other Countries, viz.			
Portugal - - - - -	£ 2,228,276 9 10		
Spain - - - - -	2,092,325 16 6¼		
Sicily - - - - -	400,000 0 0		
Sweden - - - - -	306,736 4 5		
Russia - - - - -	286,237 10 3		
Morocco - - - - -	1,952 2 7		
	5,315,528	3	7½
Miscellaneous Public Services, viz.			
At Home - - - - -	£4,870,023 16 7½		
Abroad - - - - -	293,965 1 10		
Payments from the Vote of Credit in Ireland - - - - -	30,952 2 3		
	5,194,941	0	8¼
Amount to be deducted, which forms no part of the National Expenditure (See the Details) - - - - -	£108,208,980 18 4½		
	84,875	3	0
Total - - - - -	£108,124,105 15 4½		

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

It is observable, that however inadequate the Revenues may appear to the Public Expenditure, yet there is at least one Quarter's Property Tax and other Taxes due and payable up to the date the public Accounts are made out; and that any deficiency is supplied by the Surplus of the Consolidated Fund, by Loans raised within the year, and by Exchequer Bills issued in anticipation of the Revenues, which come into the Exchequer in the course of the year.

The Sums for Ireland are stated in British Currency. And with respect to the Loans, the Sums only are mentioned which have been actually paid into the Exchequers of Great Britain and Ireland within the year.

† Including the Amount of British Postage, £53,443 9 2, collected in Ireland.

CHAPTER VII.

ON THE PUBLIC DEBT OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Origin of the Funding System in England.—Financial resources inadequate to the demands of the State from the accession of William III.—Various modes of raising Money.—Recourse had to Loans from Public Bodies and Individuals.—Bank of England established in this reign.—High rate of Interest at the commencement of the Funding System.—National Debt greatly increased by large Premiums and exorbitant Interest.—Low state of Public Credit in the reign of Queen Anne.—Exchequer Bills issued and Lotteries instituted to discharge the National incumbrances.—State of the Public Debt in the reign of George I.—The expensive Wars, joined to the disadvantageous terms on which Money was borrowed by Premiums and Douceurs, occasioned the Debt almost to be doubled in the reign of George II.—Progress made in the Reduction of the Debt by the operation of the Sinking Fund during the same period.—In 1762, the Capital was £146,682,844 and the Interest £4,840,821.—The American War, including the War with France, from 1776 to 1784, added to the existing National Debt £121,269,992, yielding an additional Interest of £5,192,614.—Gloom and despondency for more than two years of profound peace overspread the Country.—Mr. Pitt, an able Financier, restores Public Credit.—His proposition of appropriating £1,000,000 sterling a year for the Reduction of the National Debt submitted to Parliament, and adopted.—Subsequent additions.—Prosperous State of the Public Funds.—The National Debt redeemed to the end of the American War, and about £12,000,000 of the Debt contracted since the commencement of the French Revolutionary War in 1793.—Important measure of Finance submitted to Parliament by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Vansittart, in 1813, and adopted.—Progress of the National Debt, and of its Reduction from the commencement of the Funding System in 1688 to the 1st February 1814.—Public Loans.—£64,755,700 raised in 1813.—Resources of Great Britain.—Advantages arising from an extensive circulation of Paper as the representative of Money.—The National Debt an evil in theory, but not in practice.—Objections to Loans and the Funding System answered.—Benefits resulting from Loans and Public Credit.—National Debt considered with reference to the Agriculture, Trade, Commerce, Navigation, and Manufactures of the Country.—In this view of the subject, the Debt owing to British Subjects, as due from one Member to another of the same Family, considered as the Domestic Debt, and the Money due to Foreigners as the National Debt.—Necessity for observing this distinction.—Advantages arising from the Funding System explained.—Benefits derived from the Interest of the Domestic Public Debt.—Taxes considered.—General Reflections.

IN the affairs of nations as well as individuals many circumstances occur, indicating misfortune and calamity, which in the end operate as a public or private benefit. In the progress of society and the arts new lights have been thrown upon various subjects, as the result of experiment, and advantages have been ascertained and realized where human reason and reflection predicted ruin and distress. Theories formed for beneficial purposes, even by the wisest and most enlightened individuals, have often been found fallacious when reduced to practice; while bold experiments, considered by philosophers and statesmen to be fraught with the greatest evil, have been productive of good.

The difficulties, in which nations have been involved, have given rise to such experiments, not as a matter of choice but of necessity. Such was the origin of the funding system in England. The war of the Revolution after the accession of William III. to the throne had become extremely expensive. The financial resources of the country, instead of increasing, had retrograded. They were totally inadequate to the demands of the state; and it was considered as impracticable at the time to augment them. The vital interest of the nation at the same time rendered it necessary, that the war should be vigorously prosecuted, which was impossible without money.

In this dilemma, as a choice of difficulties, recourse was had to loans from individuals and public bodies under various forms. At first the grants of money, voted by Parliament, were anticipated without establishing any fund for paying the interest to the holders of the mortgage. Recourse was afterwards had to temporary annuities. In 1692, £881,493 were raised upon annuities for 99 years at 10 per cent. until the 24th June 1700, and 7 per cent. after, with the benefit of survivorship for the lives of the nominees of those who contributed (4 and 5 W. and M. Chap. 3). In 1693, one million was raised in short annuities, every subscriber receiving 14 per cent. for 16 years, with the additional benefit of a Lottery (W. and M. Chap. 7.)

In this reign, the Bank of England was established, and a new charter granted to the East India Company. These public bodies lent to Government £3,200,000, for which they received 8 per cent. At this period, private individuals could furnish no money equal to the wants of the state. Taxes were imposed to pay the interest of these loans, which were to remain until the principal and the arrears of interest were discharged: hence they became unlimited in their duration, which paved the way for those perpetual annuities, which afterwards took place.

The mode of raising money by Exchequer bills and by lotteries commenced in the reign of this monarch.

The high rate of interest at which money was borrowed, during this monarch's reign, proved a most unfortunate circumstance at the commencement of the funding system. Attempts were made to obtain loans at 6 per cent. but it was deemed necessary afterwards to resort to 7 per cent. and from 1690 to the end of the war 8 per cent. was actually paid. In 1699, however, it was found practicable to reduce the interest to 5 per cent. which continued until a new war occasioned an additional demand for money.

In the progress of the loans, which were made in the course of this reign, the national debt was swelled more by the high premiums, which it was found necessary to give, than even by the exorbitant interest. According to Davenant, public credit was so low at this period, that of five millions granted by Parliament for the support of the war and other purposes, not above two millions and a half passed into the Exchequer.

The sums borrowed during this reign from the 5th November 1688 to 25th	}	£44,100,795
March 1702, amounted to		
The produce of these funds amounted however only to		34,034,518

As a considerable proportion was repaid, the actual debt of the nation at the accession of Queen Anne amounted to £16,394,702, and the interest £1,310,942.

QUEEN ANNE.

The extensive wars, in which this Sovereign was engaged, required great pecuniary sacrifices beyond what could be furnished from the national revenues; hence it became necessary to obtain money by loans.

The disadvantageous mode of raising money by long annuities was resorted to by the ministers of this monarch. Annuities for 99 years were granted at fifteen years purchase. Money was also raised on life annuities; one life at *nine years purchase*, two lives at *eleven*, and three lives at *twelve*:—all which proved extremely disadvantageous to the public.

In the year 1710 the credit of the nation was almost ruined, in consequence of unprovided public debts, tallies, and deficiencies being brought into the market and sold at a discount of above 40 per cent! These debts were at last accumulated into one fund, which with the addition of £500,000, raised for the current service of the year, made an aggregate of £9,471,325, which at 6 per cent. interest amounted to £568,279 a year. In addition to this interest, the stockholders obtained a monopoly of the trade proposed to be carried on in the South Seas, and assumed the name of the South Sea Company, which was productive of so much mischief during the succeeding reign.

The pecuniary wants of government were so pressing at this time, that with a view to obtain a loan of £400,000 from the Bank without interest, permission was given to increase its capital, and its charter was prolonged. The Bank directors stipulated for the repayment of this sum, although it might have been fairly considered as a reasonable compensation for the extension of the charter. Other measures of finance still more injurious to the public were adopted.

In order to avoid new taxes which might irritate the people, the funds for discharging the Exchequer bills, which the Bank had agreed to circulate, had been mortgaged for the space of four or five years; and it was enacted that both the interest and the premium (which was most usurious on the part of the lender) should be paid quarterly by fresh Exchequer bills until the fund was cleared. And thus compound interest was paid quarterly, which, by this improvident measure, tended not a little to swell the national debt.

A bargain was made about this time with the East India Company, who advanced £1,200,000 to the public without interest; but the principal sum was to be repaid at the expiration of their charter.

The experiments in finance, so injurious to the nation and so beneficial to those who held government securities, began to excite on the part of the ministers of the crown a

greater degree of attention to the science of finance, and to the necessity of supporting the national credit. It was only to be done by giving undoubted security to the public creditors. Hence the system of perpetual annuities was adopted,—taxes were imposed for the security of the Bank, and the South Sea Company in perpetuity. At first, money was borrowed during this reign at 5 per cent. It however afterwards rose to 6 per cent. ; but as far as respected the South Sea Company, it amounted to much more, since the tallies which they purchased at 40 per cent. were funded at par, by which they actually received 15 per cent. on the purchase money!

Lotteries were resorted to during the latter part of this reign, as a more easy mode of raising money for the public service, but upon very disadvantageous terms to the nation, since out of £1,876,400, raised in this manner, only £1,400,000 passed into the Exchequer. The remaining £476,000 were distributed among the proprietors of fortunate tickets, being a premium of about 34 per cent. upon the sum actually received, which greatly tended to enrich the individuals who were concerned in these lotteries.

At the conclusion of this reign, the public national debt may be thus stated on the 31st December 1714.

	Principal.	Interest.
Perpetual Funds . . .	£21,094,071 . . .	£1,288,600
Temporary Annuities . . .	26,017,042 . . .	1,861,385
Unfunded Debts . . .	5,034,250 . . .	201,370
	<u>£52,145,363</u>	<u>£3,351,358</u>

GEORGE I.

The national debt appears to have remained nearly stationary at the conclusion of this reign, although a considerable reduction might have been effected, had it not been for the extraordinary expences of the nation in a continental war, which is estimated to have cost about £13,000,000.

At the close of this reign the national debt stood thus on the 31st December 1727.

	Principal.	Interest.
Perpetual Funds	£46,377,231	£1,919,089
Temporary Annuities	2,433,942	182,933
Exchequer Bills, &c.	1,543,781	46,038
Unfunded Navy Debt at 4 per cent.	1,737,281	69,491
	<u>£52,092,235</u>	<u>£2,217,551</u>

The capital of the national debt underwent little change during thirteen years of the reign of this monarch; but there is a marked difference in the interest, which experienced a reduction of no less than £1,133,807:—a proof of the prosperity and flourishing state of the nation during this period.

GEORGE II.

The prosperous state of the country, for the first twelve years of profound peace from the commencement of this reign, might have admitted of a considerable reduction of the national debt; but Sir Robert Walpole, the finance minister, by reducing the land tax to one shilling in the pound, in order to ingratiate himself with the country gentlemen, and by incurring considerable expences found necessary to support his political interest, did little during his administration. From 1731 to 1741 the secret service money amounted to £1,453,400. During ten years, from 1707 to 1717, it had only cost the nation £377,960.

From the commencement of this reign in 1727 until the beginning of the Spanish war in 1739, the reduction of the national debt amounted to £5,137,612, and the interest to £253,516.

The Spanish war which took place on the 29th of October 1739, the succeeding French war, and the heavy expence incurred by the nation in placing Maria Theresa Grand Duchess of Tuscany on the throne of her father Charles VI. Emperor of Germany, joined to the war with France, and the rebellion in the highlands of Scotland in 1745, tended considerably to augment the public debt. These wars were at last terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.

On the 31st December 1748 the National Debt amounted to £78,293,313 and the Interest to £3,061,004

On the 31st December 1739 the whole amount was - - - 48,954,624 and the Interest - 1,964,025

Increase in 9 years war - - - £31,338,689 Idem - - - £1,096,979

It was during this period that a practice, which commenced in the reign of Queen Anne of adding an artificial to the real capital which was borrowed, had been carried to any considerable height. And hence it has often since happened in many loans, that the state has acknowledged itself in £100 to the creditor, when only from £54 to £60 were actually received. It is difficult to account for the adherence to a system, on the part of experienced and able financiers of more modern times, apparently so injurious to the nation.

About this time the pressure of the war obtained for the East India Company an extension of their charter, from the period of its expiration in 1766 to 1780, on the loan of

one million sterling, for which they were to receive an interest of 3 per cent. at a time when 3 per cents were at 97. Nothing but the extreme necessities of the state could have warranted so improvident a bargain.

The charter of the bank was also extended to the 1st of August 1764, for which in 1742 the corporation lent government £1,600,000 without interest. A bargain equally improvident, since the greater part of this sum would have been paid for the prolongation of the charter had the former interest of 5 per cent. on their original capital been continued.

From the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748 the nation enjoyed the blessings of peace for about seven years, a period eminently distinguished by the judicious financial measures adopted by Mr. Pelham, an able and patriotic minister, and by the advice and assistance of that excellent senator Sir John Bernard, by whose united endeavours £57,703,475 were gradually reduced from an interest of 4 to 3 per cent.

In 1755 when a new war commenced, the national debt amounted to £74,571,841, bearing an interest of £2,416,717, consequently £3,721,472 of the principal had been discharged, in addition to the great reduction of interest, which the financial operations of the minister had effected.

The encroachments of the French upon the British North American territories, and their intrigues with the Indian tribes on the frontier settlements, added to the circumstance of their building forts within 225 miles of Philadelphia, alarmed the British Government, and gave rise to the war which commenced in 1756; which ultimately extended its baneful influence to the continent of Europe as well as America, and involved the nation in what was then considered an enormous expence, requiring public loans, where the demand for money being greater than the supply, were obtained by means of great public sacrifices.

The mode adopted in borrowing money during this war was by premiums and douceurs* upon the amount of the sums obtained, which had the effect of increasing the debt to the extent of no less than £14,283,975. This war, although it was terminated

* The difficulty of raising money at this period for the expences of the war is strongly manifested by the following statement of the premiums and douceurs upon the new Loans.

On the Loan 1756 an additional Interest of $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.	£90,000
On the Loan 1757 a Life Annuity of 1 per cent.	472,500
On the Loan 1758 an additional Interest of $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for 24 years	495,000
On the Loan 1759 £990,000 of capital, bearing Interest at 3 per cent. which in 9 years amounted to	1,257,300
On the Loan 1760 various Douceurs, making in the whole	1,852,800
On the Loan 1761 . . . Idem	4,296,375
On the Loan 1762 . . . Idem	5,820,000
Total	£14,283,975

in seven years, almost doubled the then national debt, amounting in the whole to £72,111,004.

	Principal.	Interest.
The National Debt at the commencement of the seven years war	£74,571,840	£2,416,717
The Debt incurred from 1755 to 1762 - - - - -	72,111,004	2,424,104
Total Debt and Interest in 1762	£146,682,844	£4,840,821

GEORGE III.

Such was the amount of the national debt when his present Majesty George III. ascended the throne, or rather at the conclusion of the peace of Paris anno 1763. From this period until 1775 the nation continued in peace; but unfortunately the factions in the state, and the frequent change of ministers prevented that attention to the finances of the country, or to the reduction of the national debt, which might otherwise have been expected.

At the commencement of hostilities with the Colonies in 1775, the funded and unfunded debt amounted to £135,943,051 and the interest to £4,476,821, by which it appears, that the diminution during twelve years peace amounted only to £10,739,793, and the interest to £364,000.

The American war, including the war with France from 1776 to 1784, added to the existing national debt £121,269,992, yielding an additional interest of £5,192,614.

	Principal.	Interest.
The Debt and Interest anno 1775 (as abovementioned) amounted to -	£135,943,051	£4,476,821
The Debt incurred during the American War - - - - -	121,269,992	5,192,614
	*£257,213,043	£9,669,435

This unfortunate war so deranged the finances of the country, that for a couple of years after its termination a gloom overspread the country, which seemed to paralise every effort of industry; the 3 per cent. consolidated annuities fell to 54 in August 1784—a period of profound peace. Foreigners at this period, ignorantly conceiving that by the loss of the American colonies Great Britain would be ruined, withdrew their money from the British funds. But in two years after a burst of prosperity pervaded every part of the country: agriculture, commerce, and manufactures began to flourish.

Mr. Pitt, the able and highly distinguished finance minister of the day, by judicious legislative arrangements restored the credit of the country, and established a fund for the

* From this aggregate there falls to be deducted the temporary annuities in 1775, and 1 per cent. of the interest of the 4 per cents. reduced to 3 per cent. in January 1781.

reduction of the national debt; insomuch that in December 1786, the 3 per cent. consols. had risen to 76, and in the year previous to the commencement of the French revolutionary war, in March 1792, they were as high as 96 per cent. thus advancing 42 per cent. in eight years.

In 1786 a measure was proposed by Mr. Pitt, and adopted by Parliament for gradually reducing the national debt, by appropriating one million sterling a year, which was placed in the hands of commissioners for that express purpose. Subsequent to this period various additions were made to this sinking fund, which from the 1st of August 1786 to 5th January 1813 (as will be seen by a reference to the Table, No. 6, annexed to this Chapter) amounted in the whole for Great Britain and Ireland to £253,927,787. So that in the course of 27 years very nearly the whole of the national debt, contracted from the revolution to the termination of the American war, may be said to be extinguished; and if to this is added the additional sums of money, amounting to about £15,500,000 invested in stock by the commissioners up to the 5th of January 1814, it will be found that nearly £12,000,000 of the debt contracted since the commencement of the French revolutionary war has also been redeemed.

In 1813, the Chancellor of the Exchequer (Mr. Vansittart) an able and distinguished financier, submitted to Parliament a most important measure of finance, the object of which is detailed in the following propositions.

- 1st. " That the total capital of the funded debt of Great Britain on the 5th January 1786 was £238,231,248 5s. 2½d. :—that provision was made for the gradual reduction thereof by an Act passed in the same year, and that further provision has been made by several Acts since passed for the more effectual reduction of the said debt, and of the public debt since created.
- 2d. " That by virtue of the said Acts the sum of £238,350,143 18s. 1d. exceeding the said sum of £238,231,248 5s. 2½d. by £118,895 12s. 10½d., had on or before the 1st March 1813, been actually purchased by the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt, or transferred to the said commissioners for the redemption of the land tax, or for the purchase of life annuities.
- 3d. " That it is expedient now to declare, that a sum of capital stock equal to the total capital of the public debt existing on the said 5th January 1786, has been purchased or transferred, as aforesaid, and so soon as further sums of the public debt shall have been so purchased or transferred, making in the whole an amount of annual charge of the public debt so purchased or transferred equal to the whole annual charge of the public debt existing on the said 5th January 1786; to declare further, that an amount of public debt, equal to the whole capital and charge of the public debt existing on the said 5th January 1786, hath been satisfied and discharged; and that, in like manner, an amount of public debt, equal to the capital and charge of every loan contracted since the said 5th January 1786 shall, successively and in its proper order, be deemed and declared

- “ to be wholly satisfied and discharged, when and as soon as a further amount of
“ capital stock, not less than the capital of such loan, and producing an interest
“ equal to the dividends thereupon, shall be so redeemed or transferred.
- 4th. “ That, after such declaration as aforesaid, the capital stock purchased by the said
“ commissioners, and standing in their names in the books of the Governor and Com-
“ pany of the Bank of England and of the South Sea Company, shall from time to
“ time be cancelled, as if the same had been transferred for the redemption of land
“ tax; at such times, and in such proportions, not exceeding the amount of debt so
“ declared to be satisfied and discharged (after reserving thereout any sum or sums
“ necessary to make provision for the payment of all life annuities chargeable
“ thereupon) as shall be directed by any Act or Acts of Parliament to be passed for
“ such purpose; in order to make provision for the charge of any loan or loans there-
“ after to be contracted, upon the same funds or securities as are chargeable with
“ the said stock, so declared to be satisfied and redeemed.
- 5th. “ That, in order more effectually to secure the redemption of the public debt, con-
“ formably to the provisions of the Act of the 32d Geo. III. cap. 55, it is expedient
“ to enact that all sums granted for the reduction thereof, by the several acts afore-
“ said, should be further continued and made applicable to the reduction of all
“ public debt now existing, or which may be hereafter contracted during the present
“ war.
- 6th. “ That, in order to carry into effect the provisions of the acts of the 32d and 42d
“ of the King, for redeeming every part of the national debt within the period of
“ 45 years from the time of its creation, it is also expedient that, in future, whenever
“ the amount of the sum to be raised, by loan, or by any other addition to the public
“ funded debt, shall in any year exceed the sum estimated to be applicable in the
“ same year to the reduction of the public debt, an annual sum, equal to one half of
“ the interest of the excess of the said loan or other addition, beyond the sum so
“ estimated to be applicable, shall be set apart out of the monies composing the
“ consolidated fund of Great Britain, and shall be issued at the receipt of the
“ Exchequer to the Governor and Company of the Bank of England, to be by them
“ placed to the account of the Commissioners for the reduction of the national debt;
“ and upon the remainder of such loan or other addition, the annual sum of one per
“ cent. on the capital thereof, according to the provisions of the said Act of the 32d
“ year of his present Majesty.
- 7th. “ That, in order to prevent the increase of the public debt by means of Exchequer
“ bills annually renewed, it is expedient that, on the 5th January in every year,
“ an account be taken of all Exchequer bills outstanding and charged upon funds
“ not deemed capable of making good the same, within one year from such 5th of
“ January, and that a sum equal to one per cent. thereupon be granted out of the

- “ supplies of such year to the said Commissioners for the reduction of the national
 “ debt.
- 8th. “ That it is expedient that so much of the Act passed in the 42d year of the reign
 “ of his present Majesty (42 Geo. III. cap. 71) as directs that all monies whatever,
 “ which shall be placed from time to time to the account of the said commissioners,
 “ by virtue of either of the therein recited Acts (except so far as the same are hereby
 “ repealed) or by virtue of this Act, shall and are hereby appropriated, and shall
 “ accumulate in manner directed by the said Acts, for the reduction of the national
 “ debt of Great Britain; and shall be from time to time applied by the said commis-
 “ sioners, pursuant to the directions, and under and according to the restrictions and
 “ provisions of the said therein recited Acts; either in payment for the redemption or
 “ in the purchase of the several redeemable public annuities of Great Britain, until
 “ the whole of the perpetual redeemable public annuities, now charged upon the
 “ public funds of Great Britain, including such charge as has arisen, or may arise, on
 “ any loan made in Great Britain, before the passing of this Act, and also such
 “ charge as shall arise by any annuities, interests, and dividends, payable in conse-
 “ quence of any loans made chargeable on the consolidated fund, by an act passed in
 “ this Session of Parliament, intituled ‘ An Act for repealing the Duties on Income,
 “ for the effectual collection of Arrears of the said Duties, and accounting for the same,
 “ and for charging the Annuities specifically charged thereon upon the Consolidated
 “ Fund of Great Britain,’ shall have been completely redeemed or purchased, should
 “ be repealed.
- 9th. “ That it is expedient to make provision, that an annual sum of £867,963, being
 “ equal to one per cent. on the capital stock created in respect of several loans raised
 “ by virtue of divers Acts passed in the 38th, 39th, 39th and 40th, and 42d years
 “ of his present Majesty, and for the interest and charges of which provision was
 “ made in the said 42d year of his Majesty, shall be set apart out of the monies
 “ composing the consolidated fund of Great Britain, and shall be issued at the receipt
 “ of the Exchequer to the Governor and Company of the Bank of England, to be
 “ by them issued to the Commissioners for the reduction of the national debt.
- 10th. “ That it is expedient to make further provision for the more effectual and speedy
 “ redemption of the land tax.”

These propositions were adopted by Parliament, and became a part of the law of the land.

The effects expected to be produced by this new system of finance are these following:—

- 1st. That under the new system a much smaller proportion of the national resources would be occupied in providing for the public debt.
- 2d. That a gradual and equable reduction of the debt may be provided for with great immediate advantage to the public, by enacting that the debt first contracted shall be deemed to be first paid off.

3. That no taxes would be necessary for the succeeding four years, except about £1,100,000 in 1813, even if the war should continue so long.
4. That the whole of the public debt existing in 1812 would be redeemed in 1837, whereas under the older existing plan it would not be redeemed sooner than 1845.
5. That the Sinking Fund will be much greater according to the existing plan than that proposed until 1830, when the Consolidated Sinking Fund of 1802 will fall in, and an annual sum of £21,000,000 will be taken from it. Their subsequent progress will correspond more nearly, as the successive extinction of the loans will operate upon both: the new plan, however, will continue more eligible and uniform in its progress.
6. That the cessation of the imposition of taxes for some years may be expected to have a considerable effect in improving the present revenue, and consequently in lessening the amount to be borrowed in the event of the continuance of the war, or otherwise in aiding the resources of the state on the restoration of peace.
7. That the system is capable of being adapted to every variety of circumstances which may arise.
8. That in the event of peace, the Sinking Fund would continue to accumulate at compound interest as at present, unless the inconvenience arising from the too rapid diminution of the rate of interest should induce Parliament to interfere, by ordering the stock purchased by the commissioners to be cancelled,—a contingency however which applies equally to both systems.
9. That the principal advantage of the proposed plan, *would be the facility of keeping in reserve the means of funding a large sum (suppose £100,000,000) as a resource in case of the renewal of hostilities*; which fund would be formed in a few years by the redeemed stock standing in the name of the commissioners, and would be continually increasing, unless checked by cancelling the stock, which in no case should be reduced below such a sum as should be thought amply sufficient to support the confidence of the country at home, and maintain its dignity abroad. It would indeed be such a treasure as no other country has ever witnessed, and the first example of a vast accumulation of public property, formed without the impoverishment of any individual, or any embarrassment in the general circulation.
10. That the measure proposed is less liable to be abused, as a precedent for encroachment upon it, than any other modification of the Sinking Fund, not only because it turns entirely on the application of the stock purchased by the commissioners, which must in any possible arrangement of the Sinking Fund be cancelled sooner or later, the only question being as to the time and mode.

The great and ultimate object of the Sinking Fund is to relieve the nation from the burden of taxes, which would be entailed upon it by the indefinite extension of the public debt. This is its direct and immediate object; but it is thus shewn, that it answers other collateral purposes of no inconsiderable importance.

It is no less important to prevent the immediate increase of taxes than to provide for their future possible reduction: and hence it should seem, that the best arrangement to be adopted, with respect to the Sinking Fund, would be that which, while it provided for the ultimate discharge of the debt within a certain moderate period, afforded the earliest relief to the public, and limited the maximum of total charge within the narrowest compass.

These are the leading considerations, which have induced the present Chancellor of the Exchequer to suggest the measure of finance, and which Parliament after a full discussion have adopted, in the confident hope and expectation, that it will be productive of those national advantages, which have been already explained. If these expectations shall be realized, as to which little doubt can be entertained, the gratitude of the country is due to him whose talents, industry, and financial knowledge projected and brought to maturity a plan so eminently calculated, at a period of great difficulty, to support the national credit and lessen the burdens of the people.

The following Statement exhibits a general view of the progress of the National Debt, with the various reductions which have taken place, from the first commencement of the Funding System on the 5th of November 1688 to the 1st of February 1813, comprising a period of 124½ years.

	Principal.	Interest.
National Debt at the Revolution	£ 664,263	£ 39,855
<i>Increase</i> during the reign of King William	15,730,439	1,271,087
Debt at the accession of Queen Anne	16,394,702	1,310,942
<i>Increase</i> during the reign of Queen Anne	37,750,661	2,040,416
Debt at the accession of George I.	54,145,363	3,351,338
<i>Decrease</i> during the reign of George I.	2,053,128	1,133,807
Debt at the accession of George II.	52,092,235	2,217,551
<i>Decrease</i> during the peace	5,137,612	253,526
Debt at the commencement of the Spanish War 1739	46,954,623	1,964,025
<i>Increase</i> during the war	31,338,689	1,096,979
Debt at the end of the Spanish War 1748	78,293,312	3,061,004
<i>Decrease</i> during the peace	3,721,472	664,287
Debt at the commencement of the war 1755	74,571,840	2,396,717
<i>Increase</i> during the war	72,111,004	2,444,104

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	Principal.	Interest.
Debt at the conclusion of the peace 1762	£146,682,844	£4,840,821
Decrease during the peace	10,739,793	364,000
Debt at the commencement of the American War 1776	135,943,051	4,476,821
Increase during the war	102,541,819	3,843,084
Debt at the conclusion of the American War 1783	238,484,870	8,319,905
Decrease during the peace	4,751,261	143,569
Debt at the commencement of the French Revolutionary } war 1793	233,733,609	8,176,336
Increase during the war	327,469,665	12,252,152
Debt at the conclusion of the French Revolutionary War 1801	561,203,274	20,428,488
Increase during the peace	40,207,806	307,478
Debt at the commencement of the French War 1803	601,411,080	20,735,966
Increase during the war	341,784,871	9,693,468
Total Funded and Unfunded Debt on 1st February 1813	943,195,951	30,429,434
Deduct:—		
Redeemed by Sinking Funds	£210,461,356	
Land Tax Redeemed	24,378,804	
Converted into Life Annuities, and trans- } ferred to Commissioners for reduction of } the National Debt	1,961,582—	236,801,742
		7,748,562
Net National Debt on the 1st February 1813, viz:—		
Funded . See Table, No. 6	£661,409,958	
Unfunded See Idem	44,984,251	
		£706,394,209
		£22,680,872

Since the 1st February 1813, the loans for the service of that year, including the Exchequer bills which were funded amounted in sterling money to £42,755,700, and in the month of November in the same year Parliament authorised a further loan of £22,000,000 for the service of the year 1814; making in the whole the enormous sum of £64,755,700, being by far the largest loan ever negotiated in the course of one year. It was notwithstanding obtained without any difficulty, adding to the proofs already adduced of the great and growing opulence of the country.

It further appears from the accounts laid before Parliament, that the sum expended for the reduction of the national debt, in the year ending the 1st of January 1814, amounted to no less than £15,521,352 13s. 2d. in the purchase of £26,161,361 stock, yielding an interest of £784,840 16s. 7d.

There is no political phenomenon so difficult to explain as the nature of the resources of Great Britain, which in the course of a long and expensive war have been found so abundantly sufficient for the exigencies of the state, year after year, to an extent and magnitude which have puzzled not only the theoretical politician, but also the practical statesman.

It must be evident however to the meanest capacity, that such loans could not be obtained, unless there had existed much solid wealth in the country. It will be seen in the course of this work, that little aid (comparatively speaking) has been obtained from the investments of foreigners in the British funds within the last twenty years, when the demands of the state were infinitely greater than at any former period.

In addition to a great mass of available property, it is necessary that there should exist in the nation an active interchange of valuable articles of trade and commerce, or its representatives, under circumstances where they can be easily circulated. It is of little consequence, whether the circulating medium consists of bank notes, bills of exchange, or specie, provided the credit of the paper is such as to establish confidence. It has been already seen in the Third Chapter of this work, how impossible it would be to circulate the property of this country, in the present extended state of its money transactions, through any other medium than that of paper.

It has been therefore almost entirely by paper that this circulation has been carried on for a series of years, to which (as a medium of no expence,) is to be attributed no inconsiderable share of the riches acquired by this nation within the last century, beyond what attached to the nations of Continental Europe, where gold and silver alone were and are the chief medium of exchange.

The circulation of property in Great Britain exceeds that of the most populous and opulent nation on the continent; hence the wealth, which it generates, is in the same proportion extensive.

The New Property created yearly in the United Kingdom, as detailed in Table, No. 3, annexed to the Third Chapter, must, in its progress from hand to hand, yield a very large surplus, arising from the savings and profits of individuals beyond what is required for personal expences, or for purposes of commerce. The chief part of this surplus is lent to Government or invested in the funds, which produces the same effect. The quarterly dividends received from the public funds, from the stock of the Bank of England, and the East India Company, and numerous insurance and other companies cannot amount to less than thirty-six millions sterling a year of active capital passing into the hands of a vast number of individuals, many of whom having separate incomes, some equal to a part and others to the whole of their expenditure, a large proportion of these dividends is either invested in the stocks or in Exchequer bills; thus giving to the funds a reproductive quality to a great extent.

Since the public mind has been convinced of the perfect security of funded property, and since long experience has shewn that the stockholders can depend on their dividends

being absolutely paid on a given day in each quarter, and also that they can at all times turn their capital into money on the shortest notice, they prefer this species of investment to all others; while a laudable ambition, on the part of provident individuals of all classes in the community, has prevailed for a considerable length of time to be able to say "*they have money in the Bank,*" and when once attained, a strong desire is excited to augment their little capital.

Charitable corporations and other benevolent institutions, of which there are a vast number in the kingdom, together with the friendly societies, consisting of 9672* in England and Wales, uniformly place their surplus contributions in the funds, making a large aggregate in the course of the year.

The immense sums lodged in the hands of the Accomptant-General of Chancery and the Registrar of the High Court of Admiralty (particularly in time of war) furnish great pecuniary resources for investments in the funds. To these may be added the excess of the rents and profits arising from agriculture, and all other pursuits of industry in the various occupations of life beyond the actual expence of living,—which must amount to a large sum annually.

The East India possessions and the colonies also have furnished considerable aid in respect to the immense sums, which have been borrowed from year to year for the public service; while experience has shewn that these various resources have been augmenting every year, so as to keep pace with the extensive and unexampled demands of the state.

The charges of the war itself generate an accumulation of capital in instances where the money is expended at home. From this source very considerable facilities are obtained in providing for future loans. Another source arises from the remittances of foreigners, either for the purpose of purchasing omnium, or for investments in the public funds.

The interest of the fund, appropriated for the extinction of the national debt, having increased to £15,500,000 per annum, and being still in the progress of augmentation, has also a very powerful effect.

In addition to these there are other latent sources of a contingent and adventitious nature, which unquestionably exist to a considerable extent, although they do not admit of a specific detail.

Contemplating this state of things and the arrangements, which have gradually taken place since the commencement of the funding system with respect to the general economy of money, now so interwoven with the habits of the people, it is impossible to look forward to a period which, by the extinction of the national debt, shall dissolve the present system without exciting a considerable degree of alarm.

Under such circumstances, it is not difficult to foresee the calamities, which would ensue from the vast masses of property belonging to charitable corporations, and societies,

* It is probable, that the funds of the Friendly Societies, with other associations of a similar nature, may amount to about £3,000,000. Including Scotland and Ireland, the funds of the societies in the United Kingdom may approach nearly to £3,500,000.

and to wards of chancery, minors, and a numerous class of individuals where no adequate security could be obtained; and where the interest must be so reduced as to destroy many of the sources from whence a revenue is obtained for the support of the state.

The national debt, which has been considered as a great evil by most of the writers of the last century, and which in theory must be admitted to be true, has been found in practice to produce innumerable benefits to the nation. It has been already seen, that it has not impoverished the country. On the contrary, while it has given to the operations of war an energy which no other nation ever exhibited, it has at the same time invigorated the agriculture, manufactures, trade, and commerce of the nation, in a manner and to an extent that could never have taken place, but for the funding system. It is not denied that this system may be carried too far; but if the wealth of the country shall increase in the same proportion as during the last sixteen years, it is impossible to say when it would reach its ne plus ultra.

Heavy and enormous as the loans have been during the last and the sixteen preceding years, and large as the amount is of the sums of money, which must still be borrowed to wind up the war, although for a short time the accumulated load may occasion a temporary depression of the funds, the surplus savings of the empire at large will in a very few years produce a gradual advance; and it will soon be discovered, that the present enormous debt will not in consequence of the increased wealth of the country be felt as a greater burden than the debt of £238,484,870, which so alarmed the country at the conclusion of the American war, and which reduced the 3 per cent. consolidated annuities, as already observed, at a period of profound peace to 52, but which in a few years after rose to 90 and upwards. Who could have believed it possible, that with the burden of a war of unexampled expence the whole of the national debt, contracted previous to the French Revolutionary War, could have been extinguished in so short a period as 30 years?

Objections have been stated, and ingenious arguments have at different periods been used by able writers, in order to prove the injurious consequences, which must result from the funding system. It has been urged, that the facilities afforded in raising immense sums of money hold out inducements to the nation to engage in wars, which would otherwise be avoided, and which would be to the interest of this country to avoid. It may however be doubted, whether the ministers of the crown, and still more the legislature would hazard new burthens upon the people, which are inseparable from war, unless such wars were unavoidable. It is generally a choice of difficulties. The dignity and independence of a great nation must sometimes be supported even at the hazard of hostilities.

It has been further urged, that advantage is taken of the distress of a nation requiring loans, which must in that case be obtained on disadvantageous terms. It will be seen in the preceding part of this Chapter, that this observation is just, and that great national sacrifices were made to obtain money in the reigns of King William and Queen Anne; but this observation does not apply to modern times, since there has existed a competition on

the part of the lenders of money, which has enabled the minister to borrow frequently under 5 per cent. and upon an average at not more than the legal interest for money.

It is however admitted, that no good reason can be adduced, why a war should either be commenced or afterwards lengthened out merely because it is popular in the country. It is the duty of those who execute the powers of government to look only to the interest of the state; and it is fair to conclude, that this sentiment has generally prevailed among statesmen, since their own individual interest and character, not less than the interest of the nation, are involved in the question.

The additional taxes which must be imposed upon the people, and which are calculated to advance the price of articles of the first necessity, are stated to be a strong objection against a state of warfare; but however obvious this observation is in theory, it will be seen in the sequel, that the practical effect of taxes has a powerful influence in extending and augmenting the national industry.

Various other objections have been urged, such as an increase of luxury,—a tendency to promote idleness and immorality among the people,—a spirit of gambling and stock-jobbing,—the additional officers required to collect new taxes* and increase the influence of the crown,—and further by foreign money placed in the British funds, which renders the nation tributary to aliens to the amount of the interest; not considering that if the foreigner receives 5 per cent. and the money lent produces 10 per cent. to the nation by being employed in its trade, that a considerable benefit is derived from the use of foreign money.

Certain it is, that experience has not hitherto justified the political speculations of theorists, who have written on this subject; on the contrary, it has proved that the resources of the nation have uniformly kept pace with the increase of the public debt; while this simultaneous progress shall continue, and while it demonstrates the existence of the public wealth by its practical effect, great additional burthens may be borne without abridging the luxuries, the comforts, or the conveniences of any class of the community. The events of the last twenty years sufficiently illustrate this observation.

The benefits resulting from public credit in time of war are incalculable. Loans give energy to the exertions of Government at critical moments, when without such aids every thing might be lost.

* It appears from the last Finance Accounts presented to Parliament in 1813, that the following is the percentage paid on collecting the Taxes of Great Britain, namely,

Customs	£7 17 7 per Cent.	Post Office	£22 10 11
Excise	3 17 4 Idem.	Hackney Coaches	12 1 11
Stamps	2 16 7 Idem.	Hawkers and Pedlars	12 18 4
Land and Assessed Taxes	3 19 2 Idem.		
One Shilling in the Pound on Pensions and Salaries	1 12 9 Idem.		
Sixpence on Idem	1 15 4 Idem.		

It is credit that produces loans. In this respect Great Britain possesses advantages over every other country in Europe. In the language of the celebrated Bishop Berkley, it is a mine of gold to this country, to which is to be attributed the ease with which any sum, however great, can be procured: hence the faculty and power of giving full effect, both in point of equipment and extent, to every armament sent against an enemy.

By the magic of public credit, armies are levied and fleets are fitted out with incredible expedition. The money thus borrowed to defray the expences of a war preserves in a certain degree the revenues of individuals, which may be employed beneficially in agriculture, commerce, and manufactures. Loans are generally furnished by persons not concerned in branches of productive industry. The pressure of the war is less felt, since by means of the funding system the expence is divided between periods of war and the subsequent periods of peace, by which the burden is considerably lightened.

Were it possible under all circumstances to raise supplies within the year, the savings of many individuals in the progress of accumulating a capital for the purpose of extending productive industry would be abridged, in consequence of the additional weight of the contributions. The same means would not exist for the employment of the labouring classes, while the consumption of all articles producing a public revenue would be lessened.

One great advantage, arising from the funding system, may be traced to the considerable variation in the taxes between war and peace, by which the value of every species of property, the quantum of the national industry, and the circulation of its wealth are maintained on a footing nearly as regular and uniform as the circumstances of the case will admit. This would not take place were it possible to raise by taxes a sufficient sum within the year to carry on an expensive war, from which great inconveniences would result.

It can be clearly demonstrated, in all cases where public credit is not carried beyond due bounds, that war may be maintained by national loans where taxes will prove even an advantage to the state. The demand for labour is increased, which produces an augmentation of wages. It increases the value of money to persons possessing capitals by yielding a larger return of interest or profit, while experience has shewn, that through the medium of loans, trade, commerce, and manufactures, acquire an impetus, which is not found to exist to the same extent during a period of peace. Loans also have a tendency to bring money from foreign countries. If for the money thus borrowed $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is paid, and it yields 10 per cent. upon an average to British subjects, who employ it in trade, commerce, manufactures, or agriculture, there remains a gain to the nation of $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; while it is rendered unnecessary to exhaust the capital at home, by which its productive labour might be diminished.

Where a surplus capital remains with his Majesty's subjects at home, which cannot wholly be employed in trade, commerce, manufactures, or agriculture, it is retained in the country in consequence of the wants of the state, instead of being lent or employed

in foreign countries. That such surplus capitals exist to a very great amount is clearly demonstrated by the facility with which public loans have been obtained, without any assistance from foreigners, within the last fifteen years. The resources of the country have decidedly increased with the expences of the war, notwithstanding the considerable sums which have been expended in foreign countries, and in subsidies to foreign princes, never to return into the national circulation.

Public debts are peculiarly favourable to the circulation of property. The taxes imposed upon the opulent classes of the community, and the lure they hold out to the avaricious bring the whole of the personal property of the nation into the market, giving a stimulus to productive labour, by which alone the property of every country is augmented.

It is even capable of demonstration, that every new loan creates a new artificial capital in a nation so circumstanced as the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. It should seem to have all the properties of a capital which did not before exist, producing revenue to the state, and profit to the individuals, as real treasure applied in promoting objects of industry.

NATIONAL DEBT.

This subject may be further elucidated, as it relates to the National Debt, by considering the people of the United Kingdom as composing one family, and connected together by one common interest. In this view, whatever sum of money is due by one member to another of the same family cannot either add to, or take from the quantity of property possessed by the whole family. The same reasoning applies to the nation, since whatever is owing by the community at large to a part of the same community, cannot in any degree increase or diminish the national capital.

If however a debt is owing by one family or nation to the members of another family or nation, such debt must impair the family or national circumstances in proportion to its amount.

In this view of the case, the money owing by the British Government to the subjects of the United Kingdom cannot with propriety be considered as a national debt. It does not in the least diminish the national property. The real debt owing by the people of Great Britain and Ireland, in the shape of a national debt, is that which has been lent to foreigners, which appears by the Table, No. 6, annexed to this Chapter, to amount only to the inconsiderable sum of £17,721,629. This is demonstrated by the obligation on the part of Government to send the principal and interest out of the country.

Hence it may be proper by way of distinction to consider the money owing by Government to foreigners residing abroad as the *Foreign Debt*, and the money owing to

British subjects residing at home as the *Domestic Debt*. This distinction is important, and must be kept in view in the subsequent discussion of the subject.

It has been shewn, that this Domestic Debt at the present time, (1813) exclusive of the unfunded debt, amounts for Great Britain and Ireland to £641,409,958 in sterling money, to which is to be added £64,755,700 borrowed in the course of the same year, as before-mentioned. The Foreign Debt fluctuates from month to month; and as it may have increased since the period when the specific amount was obtained, which has been already stated, it shall for argument's sake be stated at £20,000,000.

The Domestic Debt bears so large a proportion to the Foreign, that by attending minutely to the effect and operation of the first, just notions may be formed how far the national property has been advanced or impeded by it; since it must be admitted, that what has been considered as so enormous a weight upon the national finances must have had no small influence on the state of the country.

In order however clearly to understand the subject, it may be necessary to inquire into the state and condition of the country before any foreign or domestic debt existed.

The inquiry will demonstrate beyond all doubt, that the nation is far more opulent, and its resources infinitely more extensive than before the funding system commenced. It is also evident, that the riches of the nation have done more than keep pace with the increase of the loans, great as their amount has been, in the progress of the wars in which this country has been involved since the year 1775.

But it may not be admitted, that the rapid and unexampled improvement of the country is to be ascribed to the operation of the funding system. It affords however a strong argument against an opinion, which has been entertained, *that the National Debt is an evil proportioned to its magnitude.*

By referring to the details (given in the Fifth Chapter of this work) of the state of society during the reigns of the early sovereigns of this country, it will be seen that much of the expences of government were estates in possession of the crown and the clergy; that the property of the nation was in few hands; that the cultivation of the land was much neglected; and that the stock and buildings upon the farms were of small value, with few resources for productive industry. Hence the people were in a state of abject dependence. Unconditional submission was the lot of extreme poverty, and the people experienced every species of oppression in a land of liberty.

In process of time when the usual resources were insufficient, recourse was had to taxes. The money thus raised being paid to those who furnished arms, clothing, and other necessities, the augmented expenditure flowed into fresh channels, and became the property of new owners; and by degrees as the demands of Government increased, the circulation of property became more general. The industry of the nation increased in proportion to the demand for labour, while the floating wealth was received in exchange for its produce.

In this manner, the national property not only became more divided, but likewise experienced a progressive increase. Many became comparatively opulent. An additional spring was given to industry, and new resources for productive labour were generated through this medium.

The inference to be drawn is, that taxes have a tendency to increase the property of every nation, by dividing it among the community in smaller shares, and thereby extending its circulation, by which industry is promoted, producing a more equal distribution of the comforts and conveniences of life.

According to this train of reasoning, it should seem that every loan, which has been made by British subjects to their own Government, since the Revolution down to the present period, has been productive of national improvement: and hence it may be concluded, that the present *Domestic Debt*, enormous as it appears to be, yields an increase of wealth to the country in proportion to its magnitude.

Every pound sterling issued from the public purse, in its various stages of circulation, gives birth to many times its amount in the produce of labour.

The public creditor with the money he receives from Government is enabled to give employment to almost every class of the community, who labour in the various mechanical arts. These classes again lay out the money in the purchase of fresh articles adapted to their different stations, and while thus employed, every individual furnishes an addition of property to the general stock, which is visible in the improved circumstances of the people.

Experience, which confirms or refutes all theories, has shewn in the course of the last twenty years, that the *Domestic Debt* is not only productive of great resources for beneficial labour, but also dispenses protection and happiness by forming a connection of mutual advantages between the rich and the poor. The practical effect is demonstrated by the growing prosperity under the pressure of expensive wars, which is visible throughout the British Empire. A prosperity which has confounded the political world, affording an exception to the general remark, which assigns to nations their epochs of infancy, maturity, and decline; since during the continuance of a debt merely domestic, the sun of Great Britain and Ireland will ever continue to shine in its meridian splendour.

Calamities are inseparable from every nation, where the property is in few hands. The general division of property in Great Britain makes the rich more numerous, but less powerful. It affords them the means of purchasing the produce of industry, but restrains them (as in ancient times) from supporting numbers in habits of idleness. Whilst the wealth of the country was in few hands, the capitals employed in exporting manufactures to foreign countries were inconsiderable. The diffusion of property not only extended the manufactures, and of course the exports, but also generated a population having the ability to purchase and consume foreign articles received in return for goods exported.

No aphorism is so decidedly clear as “ *that the extent of our export trade ever did and ever will, in a great measure, depend on the number of people in Great Britain and Ireland, who are in circumstances to consume foreign produce.*”

The produce of the labour or industry, consumed at home, affords a direct intercourse between the rich and the poor. The connection is still maintained, although indirectly in the produce of the labour exported, as it is paid chiefly by the purchasers of foreign goods in the United Kingdom. It is evident, therefore, that our foreign trade owes its existence and extent to *the circulation of property*. Experience proves the justice of this remark, since our Export Trade has increased with our National Debt, which may be considered rather as the offspring than the parent of national prosperity.

The American War, and the loss of thirteen extensive provinces to the parent state, in addition to the heavy debt contracted during that contest were supposed not only by the British people, but also by all the nations of Europe, to have greatly impoverished the country. Under this impression, many foreigners removed their property from the English funds; and, during a short period, stocks were extremely depressed after the peace, which was ultimately concluded with France in 1783. Yet from subsequent events, joined to an accurate comparison of the state of the country before and after the conclusion of what was considered an unfortunate war, it may be satisfactorily demonstrated, that the nation was richer at its close than at its commencement.

By far the greater part of the debt, contracted during this war, became the property of British subjects. The dividends issued quarterly threw into the circulation periodically much larger sums than had existed previous to this period. The favourable effects, produced by this increased circulation of active capital, were visible by the improvement of the lands; by the increased value of the stock on the farms; the farm-houses and out-buildings had become numerous and commodious; the houses in the towns with the warehouses and shops had multiplied; the shipping of the nation had increased; the public and private roads had undergone considerable improvements; canals and other works had made considerable progress, while some branches of manufacture had been greatly extended. All these improvements have been exceedingly more rapid and infinitely more extensive, from the commencement of the French Revolutionary War until the present period, as has been already demonstrated in the progress of this work.

To those who may entertain an opinion, that the nation has been saved under all the difficulties and perils it has had to encounter, by the exertions of industry and ingenuity of the people, some surprise may be excited by the assertion, that the *Domestic Debt and its progressive increase has had the chief merit in producing what may be considered as a political phenomenon*,—the rapid increase of *public and private buildings, trade, commerce, navigation, and manufactures of the country*, under the accumulated and increasing weight of an immense public debt. Like seed sown into the ground, the vast sums expended gave birth to additional industry and ingenuity, which in many branches have been found to re-produce manyfold.

The money borrowed by the state (except that proportion which has been granted in subsidies, or actually expended in purchasing necessities produced in foreign countries for, the troops and materials for ship-building), was paid to contractors, ship-owners for transports, manufacturers, and agriculturists, and others, who provided clothing, arms, accoutrements, horses, provisions, and other articles required to carry on the war. The money paid to the army and navy, expended in this country, did not impair the national resources, except in so far as the unproductive labour of the people employed in war tended to the extent of their number to diminish the property of the nation to the value of their labour had they been employed in their former usual occupations.

But it should seem from the results, which have been explained, respecting the unquestionable increase of the property of the country beyond what could be expected, or had ever taken place during a period of peace, that the losses sustained by the foreign expenditure, and the labour of the people, have been greatly counterbalanced by the increased circulation of active capital, joined to the monopoly of the trade of the world, which, during the chief part of the war, was enjoyed by this country in consequence of its great naval superiority.

The specie, however, which has gone to foreign countries, like that sent to America during the Transatlantic War, will return again to the United Kingdom, as the price of manufactures exported, which, from the present state of the Continent of Europe, may be expected to take place to a great extent, and with infinite advantage to the nation.

It has been already shewn, that the interest of the domestic public debt, instead of being a pressure upon the country, is the main spring by which its industry is stimulated and promoted. It is the seed sown to produce a bountiful harvest of newly created property every year. With regard to the dividends paid on the foreign debt, provision is made for its discharge from the excess of the productions of labour or industry exported, which, during a period of peace, will very far exceed the demands upon the state; since nothing can prevent a very large balance of trade in favour of this country, and, consequently, a great influx of the precious metals.

Taxes are certainly necessary to support the circulation, from which the salutary effects have been produced, which have already been explained. The two principal objections to these taxes are, that, in the first place, they fall heavy on the poor; and secondly, that they enhance the price of labour, and by that means cramp foreign trade.

These apprehensions, however, will vanish when it is considered, that although a degree of wretchedness will prevail in every country, the poor, comparatively speaking, are better fed, clothed, and lodged in this country, than the same classes in any other part of Europe; and infinitely more so than when the taxes were not one twentieth part of what they are at the present time. In this view of the subject, it has been asserted by some political economists, that the poor are subject to no taxes in any country, unless where it can be shewn that their condition in society is worse than before taxes were imposed.

It cannot be denied, that taxes not only advance the price of labour, but of all articles of consumption; it must, however, at the same time be admitted, that an equal circulation of property, effected by any other cause, would advance them in the same ratio. It is not the pressure of the public debt, which increases the expences of living, but the riches generated by it. It is observable in all poor countries, that provisions and labour may be procured on much cheaper terms than where opulence prevails.

The foreign trade is in the same situation. On a due consideration of the subject, it will be found to be extended for the reasons already explained; and it may be added, that even if the wages of the labouring poor should greatly exceed their present amount occasioned by a still further increase of the Domestic Debt, the productions of labour or industry exported would increase nearly in the same proportion, arising from the augmented circulation of property which this increase would occasion.

This reasoning proceeds upon an aphorism, which will scarcely be disputed, namely, "*that the degree of industry in the kingdom will at all times, in a great measure, be proportioned to the quantity of circulating property.*" It is neither the soil, the climate, nor the peculiar habits of the people, which have given Great Britain a superiority over other nations, where the same physical and intellectual powers are generally to be found. The superiority arises from the nature of our excellent constitution, joined to the encouragement afforded to the exertions of industry and ingenuity by the floating wealth of the country, which invigorates human labour, generates facilities through the medium of ingenious machinery, and ultimately brings the British manufactures to maturity at less expence than in countries where the price of labour is much cheaper, and where the same facilities arising from an extensive circulation of property or active capital do not exist, and can scarcely ever exist to the same extent in any other country.

It is not attempted to be denied, that taxes narrow the circumstances of many individuals. The same objection, however, may be applied to any system of government, or even to any dispensation of providence, which involves in it the concerns of millions; yet this does not prove the impolicy of their existence in every state, where it can be shewn that their operation is productive of national prosperity and general happiness.

Providence has consistently with unerring wisdom strongly attached human nature to self-interest. Regardless, therefore, of the partial effects, which the present growing debt in this country may have had on the community, there would be but few advocates for its extinction, provided a general conviction prevailed, *that it would be attended with greater inconveniences than are at present experienced.* Obstacles of considerable magnitude are, no doubt, opposed to such a persuasion. A taxed income, accompanied by an advance on the necessities and conveniences of life are circumstances so strong and self-evident, that many would deem it an insult on the understanding to reason upon them.

Under such circumstances, the only chance of success lies in opposing gain to loss, by producing a larger sum from the operation of the debt than is paid by the country towards its support.

It might possibly have been the lot of this nation to have acquired a considerable share of consequence, and perhaps it might have possessed many resources without a public debt. All that is endeavoured to be shewn is, that the operation of this debt has greatly augmented our resources; while it has facilitated the progress of productive labour, rendered improvement practicable in every branch of industry, and raised the United Kingdom to a height equal to the most powerful nation in the world.

If a public debt has a tendency to cramp prosperity, it may be asked, whence does it arise that the nations of Europe, who have heretofore flourished the most, are those who have paid the heaviest taxes.

Nothing can so strongly demonstrate the imperfection of human nature, even when applied to individuals who have ranked highest in the scale of society as men of foresight, wisdom, and talents, as the discoveries which time and experience have made of the fallacy of the various predictions of the ablest writers of the last century, respecting the dangerous tendency of the national debt, and the ruin which it must bring upon the country, if suffered to increase.

The progress of events, during the last thirty years, has thrown much new light on this important subject; yet still there are individuals, and some too of considerable talents and information, who hold an opinion, that Great Britain can never be the seat of happiness, until a sponge is applied to the public debt, and the whole annihilated by the power of government; thereby sacrificing the public creditors who have bonâ fide lent their money to the state, pulling down at once the whole fabric of the funding system, and disorganizing or rather destroying that beneficial circulation, by which this country has risen pre-eminent in arms, arts, industry, and wealth beyond any other nation in the world.

The impolicy, the danger, and the injustice of such a measure require no comment. Instead of happiness,—misery, poverty, ruin, and distress would be the unquestionable result. Setting aside the very inconsiderable proportion of the debt due to foreigners, which must of course be paid, no accession of property would be obtained by the national family, even if the stockholders were to make a voluntary surrender of their whole property to the state.

The national property would be the same as before; while that energy which is generated by the circulating property, now extending to about £33,000,000 sterling a year, paid quarterly to perhaps 900,000 public creditors, would no longer exist. The agriculture of the country would experience a severe shock. Trade, commerce, manufactures, and every species of productive labour would be paralised. The ruin of a very large proportion of the public creditors would extend to all ranks of the community. The demand for labour, upon which the poor in all countries depend for subsistence, would no longer exist to any extent; since that proportion of the community, who were public creditors, and who with their families, servants, and dependents may be estimated at nearly 5,000,000 of individuals, would have no means of purchasing either food, clothing, fuel, or any of those articles of convenience, by which the community at large is supported.

The circulation of £33,000,000, independently of the Bank and East India dividends, and many other public companies, at present gives rise to many times their value in the produce of labour, by which an increase of the national revenue or new property is obtained annually to the amount upon a moderate computation of £165,000,000!

If it should be urged, that the circulation is owing to the improvement in the circumstances of the landholders and other persons of property, by the discontinuance of the annual payment of taxes to the extent of £33,000,000; this argument will fall to the ground, when it is considered that the loss of five millions of purchasers, whose consumption, in many instances, is very extended, will reduce every income arising from land, labour, or any trade or profession much more than the taxes paid to the domestic creditors.

An opinion is entertained by many men, even of sound understanding, that by paying off the public debt, by small sums annually, there will be an increase of property in the nation equal to the amount of the debt discharged, which will be employed in extending the agriculture, trade, and manufactures, and consequently the prosperity of the nation. Nothing can be more fallacious, if it is meant to extend to that part of the debt, which cannot be maintained by taxes not connected with war.

If the United Kingdom contained a gold mine, which would produce annually a certain sum towards the extinction of her public debt, though administered in small portions, and though not visible, the result would in the end prove as fatal to the body politic as if taken at one draught. If such a treasure should be found, the greatest injury that could be done to the people would be to trust it in their hands.

That the debt of the nation may be paid off is admitted. The experience of the operation of the sinking fund proves this beyond all doubt; but from what has been already stated great doubts may be entertained of the policy of the measure, and whether in its practical effect it would not ultimately produce the same poverty and distress, which existed before any public debts were contracted.

The money arising from the operation of the sinking fund should be held sacred for the purpose of preserving a treasure for the support of future wars, and for the improvement of the country, except such part as may be necessary to relieve the people of the war taxes during peace, and also such other imposts as may be found noxious or trenching in any degree on the national prosperity. The pressure of the war with all its disadvantages has certainly disclosed, by experiments in finance, the means of providing an ample revenue for future wars, without hurting the feelings of the people by any additional taxation. And happily for the country a measure, tending to this object, has been at least partly adopted.

But perhaps the most important advantage, which the nation derives from an extended national debt, is to be traced to the security it affords to the existence of the government itself. In the United Kingdom, from the nature of its free constitution factions will occasionally arise, stimulated and promoted by turbulent and popular demagogues,

tending greatly to disturb the tranquillity of the state, and to embarrass the measures of government.

Such was the spirit of sedition and the disposition to level all distinctions in society, which prevailed during the first four years of the French Revolution, that had it not been for the influence of the numerous fund-holders of those days, joined to the measures of government, anarchy and civil war might have ensued, with all the calamities attached to a disorganized government.

The barrier against the effervescence of ill-directed human passions is, at the present period, much stronger than it was twenty years ago since there are at least treble the number of stock-holders interested in preserving the constitution, and disposed to counteract, discourage, and prevent, by their influence and exertions, all confederacies leading to objects of disloyalty and sedition before they can, by their magnitude and organization, become dangerous to the tranquillity of the state.

A considerable national debt certainly tends to attach all individuals possessing property in the funds to the existing government, and to dispose them to support an order of things, upon which the security of their property depends. Had France been in the precise situation of England, in respect to the number of stock-holders, and the value of funded property, in proportion to its more extended population, there would have been no Revolution in 1789.

But great as the advantages unquestionably are, which the nation has derived from the funding system, it is still far from being perfect. It is susceptible of many improvements, which would be highly beneficial to the nation. The practice of borrowing money, where the state is only to receive £60, and sometimes a less sum, while it becomes bound to pay £100, is certainly founded on an erroneous principle, highly injurious to the nation; since it is adding a nominal capital (which does not exist) to the real sum, which has been borrowed.

If the prosperity of the country should continue, (as it is ardently hoped it will) it is a possible case, that after a few years of peace, the commissioners may be compelled to give £90 to £95 sterling to redeem a debt, where only £56 to £60 were actually received. This evident result of the effect of the present system should seem to point out a remedy where the evil may be prevented, while justice at the same time is done to the public creditor. If negotiation should fail, it would certainly, during peace, be practicable to borrow large sums in the five per cents. at par, which may be applied to the purchase of the amalgamated artificial and real stock.

In all future loans it might be proper, after the lapse of a certain number of years, to reserve a power to pay off the public creditor, if money can be obtained by loans at a lower interest, which might be practicable, since loans in time of peace can be obtained on much more advantageous terms than during war. A preference would always be given by the money lenders to funds, even at a lower interest than could be obtained on personal or

even landed security. And if all the funds could be converted into five per cent. stock, with a power of redemption at par, great advantage would result to the nation from such a measure of finance; since while it greatly simplified the system, it would secure to the nation the power which individual creditors possess in the private transactions of life, by discharging their debts on the repayment of the precise sum which the debtor received.

The credit of the nation, and the confidence of foreigners as well as natives, in the stability of the funds, are so firmly fixed, that finance operations in time of peace, now about to be established, and likely to continue for a long period of years, may be practicable; which will greatly tend to diminish the public burdens, while the nation will be sheltered against the payment of debts, for a considerable part of which no value was received.

It is not, however, the interest of the nation for the reasons already assigned, that the public debt should be too suddenly reduced, far less that it should ever cease to exist to an amount proportioned to the ability of the people to pay taxes equal to the interest without experiencing that degree of pressure, which should abridge the comforts and conveniences of life. One hundred millions, a century ago, would have produced this effect in a much greater degree than perhaps one thousand millions of the same species of stock at the present time.

It will be seen, by a reference to the Table, No. 6, that the funded and unfunded debt of Great Britain and Ireland, the first calculated up to the 1st February, and the latter to the 5th January, 1813, when reduced to sterling money, after first deducting the amount then redeemed, amounts only to £498,601,706 19s. 6½d. Since that period, namely, up to the 1st January, 1814, a further sum, amounting to £15,521,352 13s. 2d. has been redeemed, and £64,755,700 sterling have been borrowed. So that the public debt, exclusive of what is floating in Exchequer bills and other debts not yet funded, may be estimated for Great Britain and Ireland, on the 1st January, 1814, in sterling money, at about £547,000,000. The sum applied to the reduction of the national debt in Ireland, for the year 1813, has not as yet been ascertained.

Considering the resources of the country, and what has already been accomplished, in completely reducing the old debt, previous to the French war and a part of the debt since incurred, and anticipating at the same time many beneficial arrangements in finance, arising from the knowledge and talents of the present Chancellor of the Exchequer, there is certainly nothing alarming in the magnitude of the present debt, which may probably, before the war expences can be wound up, amount to £600,000,000 sterling.

All that is desirable for the real interest of the nation will be accomplished through the medium of the present sinking fund, which will have a powerful operation from this time forward, since the present happy prospect of a long and a secure peace will render new loans unnecessary; and if the country shall be blessed with a progressive prosperity, with respect to the accumulation of wealth, even to a less extent than has been experienced

during the war, it will be found (as it has heretofore proved) that the funded debt will not only be little felt, but that it will give a considerable impetus to the productive labour of all classes of the British community, in every part of the extended dominions of the crown, upon which foundation exclusively rests the increase of property in every civilized nation.

GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE PUBLIC FUNDED AND UNFUNDED DEBTS OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND;

Shewing the Amount of each of the Capitals forming the Public Funded Debt of Great Britain and Ireland, Annual Interest on the same, Annuities for Lives and Terms of Years, Land Tax Redeemed, Amount of Debt Redeemed by the Sinking Funds, the Sums transferred for the purchase of Life Annuities, and the Amount of the Unfunded Debt and Outstanding Demands of Great Britain and Ireland.—From the Financial Accounts presented to Parliament in 1813.†—Also an Account of the Principal Sums in the Funds belonging to Foreigners for the Year ended the 10th October 1809.

PUBLIC FUNDED OR NATIONAL DEBT.

CAPITALS.

	GREAT BRITAIN.	IRELAND.*			EMPEROR of GERMANY.	PRINCE RE- GENT OF PORTUGAL.	TOTAL.
		Guaranteed by and payable in Great Britain.	Guaranteed by and payable in Ireland.	Total.			
£3 PER CENTUM PER ANNUM:—	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Consolidated Annuities	404,730,558 4 5½	33,235,125 0 0	33,235,125 0 0	33,235,125 0 0	7,502,633 6 8	895,522 7 9	721,032,595 12 10½—£3 per Cent
Reduced Annuities	205,928,522 0 1	30,068,750 0 0	30,068,750 0 0	30,068,750 0 0	..	..	
Bank of England and Annuities anno- 1726	12,686,800 0 0	..	..	..	..	..	
South Sea Old and New Annuities anno 1751	25,984,684 13 11½	..	..	..	..	..	
£3½ PER CENTUM PER ANNUM.	..	..	11,705,513 8 1	11,705,513 8 1	..	..	11,705,513 8 1 —£3½ per Cent
£4 PER CENTUM PER ANNUM:—	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Consolidated Annuities	68,857,321 2 2	5,054,375 0 0	5,054,375 0 0	5,054,375 0 0	..	..	74,121,788 8 4 —£4 per Cent
£4 per Centum per Annum	..	..	210,092 6 2	210,092 6 2	..	..	
£5 PER CENTUM PER ANNUM:—	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Consolidated Navy Annuities	92,202,254 13 7½	572,000 0 0	572,000 0 0	572,000 0 0	..	..	108,477,848 1 10¼—£5 per Cent
Annuities annis 1797 and 1802	1,622,994 14 9	1,900,000 0 0	12,180,598 13 5½	14,080,598 13 5½	..	..	
£5 per Centum per Annum	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Gross £	812,013,135 9 0¼	70,830,250 0 0	24,096,204 7 8½	94,926,454 7 8½	7,502,633 6 8	895,522 7 9	915,337,745 11 2
REDEEMED:—	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Sinking Funds	210,461,356 0 0	10,653,499 0 0	4,933,897 10 0	15,587,396 10 0	1,361,974 0 0	176,674 0 0	227,587,400 10 0
Land Tax Redeemed £24,378,804 13 9	601,551,779 9 0¼	60,176,751 0 0	19,162,306 17 8½	79,339,057 17 8½	6,140,659 6 8	718,848 7 9	687,750,345 1 2
Amount converted into Life Annuities, and transferred to Commissioners for Reduction of the National Debt. } 1,961,582 0 0	—26,340,386 13 9	..	..	..	..	..	26,340,386 13 9
Net £	575,211,392 15 3¼	60,176,751 0 0	19,162,306 17 8½	79,339,057 17 8½	6,140,659 6 8	718,848 7 9	661,409,958 7 5

ANNUAL INTEREST.

	GREAT BRITAIN.	IRELAND.*			EMPEROR of GERMANY.	PRINCE RE- GENT OF PORTUGAL.	TOTAL.
		Guaranteed by and payable in Great Britain.	Guaranteed by and payable in Ireland.	Total.			
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Annual Interest on the Gross Amount of the Capitals	26,925,472 5 1	2,129,891 5 0	1,122,126 11 11¼	3,252,017 16 11¼	225,079 0 0	26,865 13 5	30,429,434 15 5½
Deduct:—							
1st annual Interest on Debt Redeemed by Sinking Funds	6,394,644 13 7	319,604 19 4	197,941 6 11¼	517,546 6 3¼	40,859 4 4	5,300 4 4	6,958,350 8 6½
2d. Idem Idem on Land Tax Re- deemed £731,364 2 9	20,530,827 11 6	1,810,286 5 8	924,185 5 0	2,734,471 10 8	184,219 15 8	21,565 9 1	23,471,084 6 11
Idem Idem on £1,961,582 converted into Life Annu- ities	58,847 9 2	790,211 11 11	..	..	..	..	790,211 11 11
Net £	19,740,615 19 7	1,810,286 5 8	924,185 5 0	2,734,471 10 8	184,219 15 8	21,565 9 1	22,680,872 15 0

† The Public Funded Debt of Great Britain is stated to the 1st February, and that of Ireland to the 5th January 1813.

* All the Sums for Ireland are stated in British Currency.

GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE PUBLIC FUNDED AND UNFUNDED DEBTS OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND ;

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PUBLIC FUNDED OR NATIONAL DEBT.

ANNUITIES.

Great Britain	£1,206,174 12 5½
Ireland :—	
Guaranteed by and payable in Great Britain	£104,083 6 8
Idem Ireland	61,869 4 7 — 165,952 11 3
Emperor of Germany	230,000 0 0
	£1,602,127 3 8½

CHARGES OF MANAGEMENT.

	GREAT BRITAIN.	IRELAND.*			EMPEROR of GERMANY.	PRINCE RE- GENT OF PORTUGAL.	TOTAL.
		Guaranteed by and payable in Great Britain.	Guaranteed by and payable in Ireland.	Total.			
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Charges of Management (Gross Amount)	294,675 4 8½	24,132 1 3	21,125 12 11½	45,257 14 2½	4,505 17 11	304 9 6½	344,743 6 4½
Deduct :—							
1st. Charges of Management on Debt redeemed by Sinking Funds	71,556 17 2½	3,622 3 9½		3,622 3 9½	463 1 5	60 1 4½	75,702 3 9½
2d. Idem Idem on Land Tax Re- deemed £8,295 15 10½	223,118 7 6½	20,509 17 5½	21,125 12 11½	41,635 10 4½	4,042 16 6	244 8 2	269,041 2 7
Idem Idem on £1,961,582 converted into Life Annu- ities 666 18 9	8,962 14 7½						8,962 14 7½
Net	£214,155 12 10½	20,509 17 5½	21,125 12 11½	41,635 10 4½	4,042 16 6	244 8 2	260,078 7 11½

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

Capitals.		Annual Interest.		Annuities.		Charges of Management.	
Gross .	£915,337,745 11 2	Gross .	£30,429,434 15 5½	Total	£1,602,127 3 8½	Gross .	344,743 6 4½
Redeemed	253,927,787 3 9	Redeemed	7,748,562 0 5½			Redeemed	84,664 18 5
Net	£661,409,958 7 5	Net	£22,680,872 15 0			Net	£260,078 7 11½

AGGREGATE.

Public Funded or National Debt £661,409,958 7 5	Stock
equalized to 5 per Cents. at £100	in Sterling £453,617,455 0 0
Annual Interest on the same	22,680,872 15 0
Annuities for Lives and Terms of Years	1,602,127 3 8½
Charges of Management	260,078 7 11½

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PUBLIC UNFUNDED OR FLOATING DEBT.*

		£.	s.	d.	
EXCHEQUER BILLS:—					
Amount held by the Bank of England, without Interest, payable 6 months after Peace out of the Supplies of the year		3,000,000	0	0	
Idem Idem at an Interest of £3 per cent. per annum		3,000,000	0	0	
		£ 6,000,000	0	0	
Other Sums issued for Miscellaneous purposes		39,406,400	0	0	£. s. d.
Amount Outstanding in Ireland provided for by several Acts of Parliament, but not claimed by the Proprietors, £308 6s. 8d. Irish Currency, in Sterling		284	12	3½	
Amount in Ireland not in course of payment to be provided for, £2,508,940 5s. 6d. Irish Currency, in Sterling		2,315,944	17	4½	—47,722,629 9 8½
ARMY:—					
Outstanding Demands, including Treasury Bills, amounting to £1,245,609 accepted, due subsequent to the 5th January 1813		£2 753,189	12	5	
Outstanding Demands of the Barrack Department on the 24th December 1812		246,213	3	8	— 2,999,402 16 1
NAVY:—					
Outstanding Demands of the Navy, Victualling, Transports, Prisoners, and Sick Seamen, including Bills payable on the 31st December 1812					— 7,748,872 9 1
ORDNANCE:—					
Outstanding Demands on the Ordnance					— 900,360 8 10
LOAN DEBENTURES:—					
Residue of Debentures on Lotteries, and Old Loan, in Ireland, provided for by Act of Parliament, but unclaimed by the proprietors, £2,225 Irish Currency, in Sterling					— 2,053 16 11½
LOTTERY PRIZES:—					
Outstanding Lottery Prizes of the several Lotteries from 1782 to 1801, £25,927 Irish Currency, in Sterling					— 23,932 12 3½
MISCELLANEOUS:—					
Outstanding Demands for various Public Services, at Home and Abroad					— 783,660 14 10
		Gross.			£ 60,180,912 7 9
OFF BALANCES, &c.:—					
Balances in the Exchequers of Great Britain and Ireland on the 5th January 1813, viz. Appropriated		£11,297,562	12	1½	
Unappropriated		1,255,085	3	4	
		£ 12,552,645	15	5½	
Idem in the hands of Collectors and Receivers General on the 5th January 1813		1,422,521	14	1½	
Bills deposited in the Bank of Ireland due subsequent to the 5th January 1813, and Duties not payable until after the same day, in Sterling		307,183	13	4½	
Bills remitted to the Receivers General on account of the Revenues in Great Britain, due subsequent to the 5th January 1813		914,309	5	4	—15,196,660 8 2½
		Net.			£ 44,984,251 19 6½

AGGREGATE.

Public Unfunded or Floating Debt:—			
Great Britain	Gross	£ 57,838,696	8 10
Ireland	Idem	2,342,215	18 11
		£ 60,180,912	7 9
Deduct Balances, &c.:—			
Great Britain		£ 13,487,148	9 7
Ireland		1,709,511	18 7½
	Net.	£ 15,196,660	8 2½
		£ 44,984,251	19 6½

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

Exchequer Bills	£ 47,722,629	9 8½
Army	2,999,402	16 1
Navy	7,748,872	9 1
Ordnance	900,360	8 10
Loan Debentures	2,053	16 11½
Lottery Prizes	23,932	12 3½
Miscellaneous	783,660	14 10
Gross	£ 60,180,912	7 9
Deduct:—		
Balances in the Exchequers of Great Britain and Ireland, &c.	15,196,660	8 2½
Net	£ 44,984,251	19 6½

* The Public Unfunded or Floating Debt is stated to the 5th January 1813.

GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE PUBLIC FUNDED AND UNFUNDED DEBTS OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND;

Shewing the Amount of each of the Capitals forming the Public Funded Debt of Great Britain and Ireland, Annual Interest on the same, Annuities for Lives and Terms of Years, Land Tax Redeemed, Amount of Debt Redeemed by the Sinking Funds, the Sums transferred for the purchase of Life Annuities, and the Amount of the Unfunded Debt and Outstanding Demands of Great Britain and Ireland.—From the Financial Accounts presented to Parliament in 1813.—Also an Account of the Principal Sums in the Funds belonging to Foreigners for the Year ended 10th October 1809.

AGGREGATE DEBT.

Net Public Funded Debt of Great Britain and Ireland on the 1st February 1813. — £ 661,409,958	7	5.	Stock, in Sterling	- - - - -	£	s.	d.
Idem Unfunded Debt, and Demands Outstanding, of Great Britain and Ireland on the 5th January 1813 (See the Details.)	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	453,617,455	0	0
					44,984,251	19	6½
					<u>£ 498,601,706</u>	<u>19</u>	<u>6½</u>

FOREIGNERS.

An Account of the Principal Sums in the Funds of Great Britain, on the Dividends of which Exemptions have been allowed to Foreigners, from the Quarter ended in October 1808 to the Quarter ended in October 1809 inclusive.

Quarter ended 5th January 1809.

	£.	s.	d.
3 Per Cent. Consolidated Annuities	11,755,523	9	5
5 Per Cent Navy . . . Idem	212,214	15	7
East India Stock	445,822	19	1
South Sea . . . Idem	1,112,912	19	0
South Sea Annuities, 1751	154,734	17	4
New South Sea Annuities	512,218	17	6
3 Per Cent 1726	82,658	15	6
3 Per Cent Imperial	80,102	10	0
Imperial Annuities	1,205	19	0
Irish Tontine	2,518	10	6
Exchequer Annuities	293	15	0
	<u>£ 14,360,207</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>11</u>

Quarter ended 5th April 1809.

	£.	s.	d.
3 Per Cent Reduced Annuities	2,208,285	5	8
4 Per Cent	808,856	15	5
Old South Sea Annuities	503,703	11	3
Long Idem	6,172	13	4
5 Per Cent 1797	59,025	8	10
5 Per Cent Irish	51,970	0	0
Irish Annuities	330	18	10
Exchequer, Idem	282	11	4
	<u>£ 3,618,627</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>8</u>

Amount of Principal on which the Dividends were exempt from the Property Tax, as being the Property of Foreigners, in the 1st. and 2d. Quarters, ended the 5th April 1809. } £17,978,834 12 7

NAMES:—

	£.	s.	d.
The two former Quarters in 1809	17,978,834	12	7
The two latter, . Idem . . Idem	17,464,424	11	2
	<u>£ 35,443,259</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>9</u>

Average Principal of Foreigners in the British Funds, on which Exemptions from the Property Tax were granted in the 4 Quarters ended the 10th October 1809. } £17,721,629 11 10½

Quarter ended 5th July 1809.

	£.	s.	d.
3 Per Cent Consolidated Annuities	11,452,874	14	10
5 Per Cent Navy . . . Idem	210,329	9	2
East India Stock	432,090	13	6
South Sea, Idem	1,102,635	8	4
South Sea Annuities 1751	154,766	17	4
New South Sea Annuities	511,167	18	11
3 Per Cent 1726	82,658	19	6
3 Per Cent Imperial	62,903	12	1
Imperial Annuities	978	5	0
Irish Tontine	799	4	4
Exchequer Annuities	225	0	0
	<u>£ 14,011,430</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>0</u>

Quarter ended 10th October 1809.

	£.	s.	d.
3 Per Cent Reduced Annuities	2,149,767	4	4
4 Per Cent	776,584	5	2
Old South Sea Annuities	476,949	15	4
Long Annuities	6,396	0	11
5 Per Cent 1797	35,432	16	7
5 Per Cent Irish	7,700	0	0
Irish Annuities	164	5	10
	<u>£ 3,452,994</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>2</u>

Principal exempt from the Property Tax in the 3d and 4th Quarters ended the 10th October, 1809. } £17,464,424 11 2

EXEMPTIONS.

	£.	s.	d.
On Dividends for the Quarter ended 5th January 1809	23,894	13	10½
Idem Idem . . . 5th April . Idem . . .	6,251	8	10½
Idem Idem . . . 5th July . Idem . . .	23,224	15	6
Idem Idem . . . 10th Octr. Idem . . .	5,927	7	4
Total Amount at 10 per Cent on the Dividends	<u>£ 59,298</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>7</u>

NOTE.—As there appears to have been no access to information respecting the Property of Foreigners in the Funds since the foregoing was published in 1809, and as there has been little opportunity of Persons not Natives of this Country investing Money in the Funds, it may be reasonably supposed that it has not materially increased or diminished since that period, and that the above Statement will answer every purpose.

CHAPTER VIII.

ON THE DEPENDENCIES IN EUROPE IN THE POSSESSION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

A general View of the Dependencies in the Possession of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland situated in different parts of Europe.—Containing Estimates of their Population.—Cultivated and uncultivated Lands.—Shipping.—Natural productions.—Imports and Exports.—Public Property.—Private Property.—Estimated Value of Lands cultivated and uncultivated.—Farms, Buildings, and Agricultural Stock.—Houses, Shops, Merchandize, and Furniture in Towns.—Estimated Value of Shipping.—And Circulating Specie in each Dependency.

HAVING, in the preceding Seven Chapters, attempted to enter into details respecting the population of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; its public and personal property; the new property presumed to be created annually; the commerce, shipping, navigation, and fisheries of the United Kingdom; its revenues from the Norman conquest to the present period, with the public expenditure during the reign of his present Majesty, together with the origin, progress, and present state of the funding system:—It now remains, according to the plan of this work, to take a general view of the dependencies and colonies of the crown in every quarter of the world.

The dependencies of the crown in Europe, which form the subject of this Chapter, consist of *the Isle of Man, the Scilly Islands, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Sark, Gibraltar, Malta including Goza, and the Island of Heligoland.*

As the Table, annexed to the present Chapter, contains a comprehensive view of these, calculated to convey to the mind with the least possible trouble a tolerable idea of their approximating value and importance to the parent state; and as the Table is illustrated by very copious notes, little remains to be stated on the subject of these dependencies.

ISLE OF MAN.

The Isle of Man had long been held as a kind of lordship or sovereignty under the crown by the Earls of Derby. It came afterwards into the possession of the family of the Duke of Athol by marriage. Not being under the control of the British Parliament, it had long been a receptacle for illicit traders; by which the revenue was greatly injured.

It became on this account a desideratum with his present Majesty's Government to purchase the sovereign privileges, then held by the Duke and Duchess of Athol, which were obtained at the expence of £70,000 in the year 1765.* Since which, namely in the year 1805 a further compensation has been granted by Parliament to the present Duke of Athol and the heirs general of the seventh Earl of Derby, by way of annuity†, equal to one fourth part of the revenue of the customs, to be paid out of the consolidated fund. He still retains his landed estates in the island, and the appointment of the bishop and inferior clergy, while the inhabitants also retain their ancient legislature (the House of Keys) and likewise their original laws and form of government.

The only advantage in a pecuniary point of view, which Great Britain appears to derive, is the revenue of customs, which has varied from year to year, and cannot be estimated on an average above £5,500 a year.‡ But the chief object, that of putting a

* Since the surrender of the Isle of Man to the crown various commercial privileges have been granted by Parliament to the inhabitants. They were permitted to export the produce of the island to Great Britain. The same bounties were granted on their linens as in Great Britain and Ireland. Provision was made for exporting grain of all kinds to the island from England to the extent of 2,500 quarters annually. In 1767 an Act also passed for encouraging the Trade, Manufactures, and Fisheries of the Island, with other commercial privileges. In 1772 another Act passed for the encouragement of the Herring Fishery.

† The annuity which the Duke of Athol has received out of the Consolidated Fund, from the 5th January 1806 to 5th January 1813, both inclusive, amounts in the whole to £26,095, making an average of £3,262 annually during the last eight years:—From this, it should seem, that the annuity is paid out of the gross, and not out of the net revenue.

‡ According to the Finance Accounts presented to Parliament, the Surplus Revenue received from the Isle of Man in the year ending 5th January 1808 was . . . £2,210

5th January 1809 . . . 4,045

5th January 1810 . . . 9,717

5th January 1811 . . . 8,254

5th January 1812 . . . 1,595

5th January 1813 . . . 6,973

stop to illicit trade (which had gone to an excessive height) has in a great measure been attained.

It is not obvious, that any other advantage has been derived from the transfer of this island to the crown. Its revenues appear to be sufficient to support its civil government; and upon the whole, the island is in a state of improvement. It produces *wool, tallow, black marble, lead, and iron*; but its principal trade arises from the herring fishery, which is frequently very productive, although fluctuating and uncertain. The public and private property of the island is estimated at £3,502,050.—Vide Table, No. 7, annexed to this Chapter.

SCILLY ISLANDS.

These islands are very numerous, forming a cluster about thirty miles west of the Land's End. Only five or six are inhabited. They feed many sheep and rabbits. The inhabitants, estimated at about one thousand, subsist chiefly by fishing, manufacturing kelp, and acting as pilots. The chief island is that of St. Mary's, about three miles long and two broad, which contains more inhabitants than all the rest put together. It has a good harbour, and is well fortified. The island St. Agnes has a light-house—a very fine column fifty-one feet high. The whole value of these islands, including the public and private property and buildings, is estimated at £90,500.

GUERNSEY, JERSEY, ALDERNEY, AND SARK.

These islands, lying near the coast of Normandy, have been subject to the crown of England since the Norman Conquest. Numerous attempts have been made by the different sovereigns of France to sever these islands from England, but they have uniformly failed. The population may be estimated at about 36,300 inhabitants. They are still governed by the Norman laws; and except as to regulations of Trade they are in no respect under the control of the British Legislature. They enact their own laws, and raise the taxes necessary for their civil government. They are appendages of the crown of England.

The King's revenues arise from tithes of corn and other grain in Guernsey, and are generally farmed out by the governor for the time being. There are also rents in money, but they are trifling. A small revenue also arises from what is called *tresiems*, paid on all sales of land or rent upon the King's fiefs, being one third part of the purchase; but the full extent is never obtained,—it is generally settled by composition. A small revenue likewise arises from fines and amercements of the court, and all forfeitures, wrecks at sea, the customs and anchorage, and tonnage upon all French vessels. These

revenues are not presumed to yield above £2000 a year, and are probably applied to public purposes in the Islands.

For a great length of time, not only the Isle of Man, but also Guernsey and Jersey, by the encouragement given to illicit trade through these mediums, proved exceedingly injurious to the revenue of this country. The mischiefs, arising from the peculiar situation of the former, terminated, in a great measure, from the period when the lordship was purchased from the Duke and Duchess of Athol; while the interference of Parliament, at no very remote period, has given a considerable check to the introduction of uncustomed goods from the latter Island.

These territories, if possible, should be placed in a situation to aid the parent state to the full extent of which they are capable. The troops necessary for the defence of Guernsey and Jersey, in time of war, have proved a heavy burthen, not to mention that proportion of the civil establishments which is defrayed from the resources of Great Britain.

GIBRALTAR.

The celebrated Fortress and Town of Gibraltar have been in the possession of the British Crown 110 years. In the war occasioned by the disputed succession of the crown of Spain, in which this country took a prominent part, this important military station was captured by the advice of Admiral Sir John Leak, who proposed to Sir George Rook (who then commanded the English fleet in the Mediterranean) and to Prince George of Hesse Darmstadt, to attempt the reduction of this fortress: the Admiral and the Prince agreeing in opinion with Sir John Leak, that it would prove of the greatest consequence in carrying on the war.

On the 21st of July, 1704, a body of men were landed in the Isthmus, while the fleet cannonaded the town and bay. A detachment of English seamen carried the outworks at Europe point, which made such an impression on the inhabitants and the garrison, that the Marquis de Salinus, the governor, capitulated; and the Prince of Hesse took possession of the fortress and its appendages, on the 24th of the same month, after a defence of only three days, and with a loss under 100 men. The garrison had not above 100 guns mounted, being in a poor state of defence.

The Spanish government, extremely sensible of the magnitude of the loss they had sustained, marched almost immediately an army, under the Marquis de Villadurias, in co-operation with the Count de Thoulouse, who commanded the French fleet in the Mediterranean, for the purpose of recapturing this important fortress. Marshal de Tossi joined the French army, and continued the siege for six months, while the French fleet being defeated by Admiral Sir John Leak, the siege was converted into a blockade. The

British, under the Prince of Hesse Darmstadt, in co-operation with the brave and intrepid Admiral, defended the garrison with the greatest bravery.

At the conclusion of the peace, which seated a branch of the Bourbon family on the throne of Spain, Philip V. yielded the town and fortress of Gibraltar (but without any territorial jurisdiction) to Great Britain for ever. It has, however, been always viewed by the Spaniards with a jealous eye. In 1727, they again besieged it for four months without making any impression, when a cessation of arms left this country in quiet possession of it until July 1799,—soon after the French and Spanish governments had joined the Americans in a war against this country.

A most powerful force was brought against this garrison, and the siege was conducted by the ablest engineers at that time in Europe. On the 13th of September, 1782, a most formidable attack was made upon the garrison by numerous floating batteries, constructed with great skill, and at an enormous expence; but the illustrious commander, General Elliot, and the brave garrison, discomfited this new Armada, and the destruction of the floating batteries was completely effected by red hot balls, by which the enemy suffered great loss. The siege, or rather blockade, was afterwards continued until the peace, concluded in February 1783, put a period to the war.

Since this important fortress has been in the possession of Great Britain, immense sums have been expended, at different periods, in extending the works in every direction under the ablest engineers; the fortress may therefore be considered as impregnable, so long as the British naval superiority shall secure a regular supply of provisions to the garrison.

The local situation of Gibraltar renders it of great importance to this country. The possession of such a fortress, in the territory of the kingdom of Spain, and commanding in some measure the navigation of the Mediterranean from the Atlantic Ocean, while it gratifies the national pride and offers accommodation and refreshment to British ships of war and traders entering the Mediterranean, elevates the country in the view of all the nations of Europe.

During all periods of war, it has been considered a valuable acquisition. It may then be said not only to divide Spain from Spain, but also France from France.

As a commercial depot during war, it has always been found of some importance; but during the war of usurpation in France, which shut up the ports of Italy against this country, great advantages have been derived from Gibraltar in a commercial point of view, which till then had never been contemplated. In fact, it became a general mart for every kind of merchandize, where all nations resorted for the purpose of supplying the ports of Africa and the Mediterranean. On this branch of the subject, the reader is referred to the Table annexed to this Chapter for more minute details.

It must, however, be admitted, that the national expence, in supporting and improving this fortress, during the period of more than a century, has been very enormous,

so much so as perhaps to be more than counterbalanced by the advantages; yet it is believed, that the high spirit of the nation would submit to any pecuniary sacrifice rather than yield up to any other power what has been considered as among the brightest jewels in the crown.

MALTA, INCLUDING GOZA.

The war of the French Revolution, the occupation of the Italian ports by the enemy, and above all, the invasion of Egypt by a formidable fleet and army from France, rendered it a great desideratum on the part of this country to obtain possession of Malta, which had been previously wrested from its lawful Sovereigns, (the Grand Master of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, since called the Knights of Malta,) by the revolutionary government in 1799, thereby becoming a dangerous engine in the hands of a powerful enemy.

Malta is 20 miles long, and 12 broad. It contains two cities, and 22 villages; and has several good harbours on the coast opposite to the Island of Sicily. A part of the Island is fertile; and is so fortified by nature and art as to be considered impregnable.

Goza, an appendage of Malta, distant about five miles, is also strongly fortified. Its length is about *eight*, and its breadth *four* miles. The soil is more generally fertile than that of Malta, and the productions of both are the same.

Malta, after a long blockade, was finally captured by His Majesty's naval and military forces, on the 5th of September 1800. It had been stipulated, by the Treaty of Amiens, to be delivered up to its original Sovereign; but various difficulties having been opposed by the then French government to the fulfilment of the Treaty, and in the meantime a new war having commenced in 1802, these dependencies have continued, and are likely, by the will of the people and the different Sovereigns of Europe, to become permanently annexed to the British Crown.

Although these Islands yield nothing that can render them of the least importance as an exporting country, since the produce of the soil is not sufficient to feed the inhabitants, yet the local situation of Malta renders it a great acquisition, both in a political and commercial point of view. Its position is important as an entrepôt for merchandize in time of war, and a most convenient station for any naval force, which it may be found necessary to send to the Mediterranean.

During the war of the Usurpation (now happily terminated) which, for a series of years, shut the ports of the Mediterranean against this country, the trade of Malta became extremely extensive; and it was through this medium, that colonial produce and

British manufactures were introduced by foreign vessels into the Southern Continent of Europe, in spite of the arbitrary decrees of the Usurper of the French government.

How far it may be possible to render Malta a beneficial mart for commerce, in time of peace, remains to be determined by future events. Its local situation is certainly admirably fitted for the establishment of entrépôts of British merchandize and colonial articles, which may be furnished to the continental consumers through the medium of small vessels trading from the *Italian*, the *Venetian*, and the *Greek*, and other territories on the Continent of Europe, Asia, and Africa, which could not be conveyed in larger ships from the ports of exportation in Great Britain.

The knowledge of the existence of such a depôt,—the advantages to be derived by the purchasers from the facilities of obtaining assortments of various articles in small quantities, and of selling their produce, or bartering it on equitable terms might, under proper encouragement, enable Malta to retain a considerable portion of the trade which proved of such vital importance to this country in the course of the war. Some exertions will be necessary to remunerate the nation for the considerable expence, which must be incurred by the military establishment that will be necessary, and also to defray the charges of the civil government.

HELIGOLAND.

This Island is situated in the German Ocean, nearly opposite to the mouths of the river Eyder in Holstein, the Elbe, and the Weser. It is a barren rock, about nine miles in circumference. When the French government took possession of the Hanse Towns of Hamburg and Bremen, in 1807, it was captured from the Danes, and occupied by a British force, with the immediate view of making it a depôt for colonial produce and British manufactures, to be sold to merchants and others on the adjacent continent, and thereby, as far as possible, to render abortive the decrees of the French Usurper.

For several years vast quantities of merchandize found a ready sale at this depôt, which became at length a very considerable commercial establishment, where merchants from different parts of Great Britain, and also from the Continent, had a temporary residence. But after the annexation of the Hanse Towns to France, a stricter guard was established by the enemy, which considerably reduced the exportation to the opposite coast. By the late Treaty of Peace between Great Britain and Denmark, this country retains Heligoland in perpetuity.

It is inhabited by about 2000 Danish fishermen, who support themselves chiefly by wrecks, and by supplying the adjacent continental towns with fish. The republic of Hamburg erected a light-house on the Island, for the greater safety of vessels entering the Elbe, which has been repaired lately by the British Government at a considerable expence.

This Island was only valuable under the peculiar circumstances in which this country was placed, after the influence and the power of the then Ruler of France had extended over the North of Europe. As a recurrence of the same events is scarcely to be again contemplated, it cannot be considered as of any value to Great Britain, since the extraordinary circumstances, which led to its capture, and which pointed it out as a commercial entrepôt, have ceased to exist.

CONCLUSION OF THE CHAPTER.

The British dependencies in Europe (it would thus appear) are of no great value to the parent state. As the expence upon the whole is very considerable, and the returns next to nothing, it deserves consideration, how far it may be practicable by appropriate commercial regulations to assist in defraying this expence; since the population, while they are enjoying most or all of the privileges of British subjects, contribute little or nothing to the resources of the state.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE OF THE BRITISH DEPENDENCIES IN EUROPE;
 Comprising the Population, Number of Acres of Land cultivated and uncultivated, Colonial Shipping, Value of Productions raised, Exports and Imports, Circulating Specie; and an Estimate of the Amount of Public and Private Property in each Dependency, as an integral part of the British Empire.—From Authentic Documents and the latest Authorities. (1812.)

POWER AND RESOURCES.

	Population.	Lands.		Shipping.	Estimated Value of Productions raised annually, including Esculents and Fruits.	Estimated Value of Exports.	Estimated Value of Imports.
		Cultivated.	Uncultivated.*				
	Inhabitants.	Acres.	Acres.	Tons.	£	£	£
Isle of Man (A)	30,000	67,200	35,000	9,585	450,000	80,000	60,000
Scilly Islands (B)	1,000	2,000	..	300	10,000	..	..
Guernsey (C)	15,000	30,000	2,000	9,485	150,000	180,000	160,000
Jersey (D)	20,000	30,000	2,000	6,003	200,000	140,000	128,000
Alderney (E)	1,000	4,200	300	†	10,000	60,000	54,000
Sark (E)	300	4,700	300	†	3,000	20,000	18,000
Gibraltar (F)	16,000	..	..	3,000	50,000	2,000,000	2,200,000
Malta, including Goza (G)	94,000	70,000	..	4,000	940,000	2,500,000	2,800,000
Heligoland (H)	3,000	..	..	..	5,000	..	..
Totals.	180,300	208,100	39,600	32,373	1,818,000	4,980,000	5,420,000

VALUE.

	PUBLIC PROPERTY.		PRIVATE PROPERTY.					TOTAL.
	Estimated Value of Forts, Barracks, Arse- nals, Artillery, and all Public Buildings.	Estimated Value of Lands.		Estimated Value of Buildings, Stock, and Agricultural Utensils on Farms.	Estimated Value of Houses, Shops, Mer- chandize, and Furni- ture in the Towns.	Estimated Value of Shipping.	Estimated Circulating Specie.	
		Cultivated, and for Buildings.	Uncultivated. *					
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Isle of Man	50,000	1,612,800	210,000	50,000	1,478,400	95,850	5,000	3,502,050
Scilly Islands		84,000		3,000		3,000	500	90,500
Guernsey	100,000	1,260,000	20,000	80,000	1,000,000	94,850	30,000	2,584,850
Jersey	150,000	1,260,000	20,000	80,000	1,000,000	60,030	40,000	2,610,030
Alderney		176,400	3,000	4,000	60,000	†	2,000	245,400
Sark		197,400	3,000	1,500	20,000	†	600	222,500
Gibraltar	3,000,000	200,000			1,800,000	30,000	100,000	5,130,000
Malta, including Goza	4,000,000	1,400,000		100,000	2,000,000	40,000	200,000	7,740,000
Heligoland					30,000	5,000	1,000	36,000
Totals	£7,300,000	6,190,600	256,000	318,500	7,388,400	328,730	379,100	22,161,330

AGGREGATE VALUE OF EACH DEPENDENCY.

	£
Isle of Man	3,502,050
Scilly Islands	90,500
Guernsey	2,584,850
Jersey	2,610,030
Alderney	245,400
Sark	222,500
Gibraltar	5,130,000
Malta, including Goza	7,740,000
Heligoland	36,000
	£22,161,330

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

Population.—180,300 Inhabitants.
 Lands.—208,100 Acres cultivated:
 39,600 Idem uncultivated.

Shipping.—32,373 Tons.
 Estimated Value of Productions raised annually, including Esculents and Fruits . . . £1,818,000
 Estimated Value of Exports (1812) . . . £4,980,000
 Idem Idem Imports (1812) . . . £5,420,000

PUBLIC PROPERTY.
 Estimated Value of Forts, Barracks, Arsenals, Artillery, and all Public Buildings £7,300,000

PRIVATE PROPERTY.
 Estimated Value of Lands, viz. Cultivated . . . £6,190,600
 Uncultivated* 256,000
 £6,446,600
 Estimated Value of Buildings, Stock, and Agricultural Utensils on Farms 318,500
 Estimated Value of Houses, Shops, Merchandize, Furniture, &c. in Towns 7,388,400
 Estimated Value of Colonial Shipping 328,730
 Circulating Specie estimated at 379,100
 Grand Total £22,161,330

* A considerable part of the Uncultivated Lands is supposed to belong to the Crown.

† As Alderney and Sark are Dependencies of Guernsey, it is presumed that the Tonnage of Vessels belonging to these Islands is included in the number of Tons stated for Guernsey.

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

(A.) ISLE OF MAN.

Population.—Mr. Woods, in page 31, of his account of the Isle of Man, details a census of the inhabitants, 27,913, as taken in 1792, and supposes at the time he wrote (1806) that it contained more than 30,000.

Lands.—It has been ascertained that more than one half of the island is cultivated.

Shipping.—According to the public accounts for Great Britain for the year ended the 5th January 1812:—

In 1811, 398 vessels, admeasuring 9,585 tons, navigated by 2,329 men and boys, belonged to the Isle of Man.

Productions.—The cattle, potatoes, and grain raised, and the flax for manufactures exported, and consumed in the island, together with the produce of the fisheries (immense quantities of herrings being exported) cannot amount to less than 15*l.* per head annually, on the total number of inhabitants.

Imports and Exports.—The imports into the Isle of Man consist of manufactured goods of almost every description, coals, wine, brandy, geneva, rum, and various other articles; the balance of trade being greatly against the island. The exports are strong linen and sail cloth, herrings, lead, lead-ore, fowls, butter, eggs, &c.

VALUE.

Public Property.—The public buildings at Douglas, in the Isle of Man, including the pier and a light-house, which cost government more than 22,000*l.* Castle Rushen at Castletown, bridges, churches, and other public buildings,—the whole cannot be worth less than 50,000*l.*

Private Property.—Mr. Woods states, in page 53, of his publication respecting the Isle of Man, that the best land in the neighbourhood of towns is worth from 2*l.* to 3*l.* per acre a year, but that 30*s.* to 35*s.* is the common price. Farms not very distant from towns let for a guinea, and 25*s.* an acre per annum, the more remote at from 12*s.* to 20*s.*, upland at 5*s.* and upwards,—perhaps the medium may be 16 shillings per acre per annum, which, at 30 years purchase, would amount to 24*l.* per acre. This, for 67,200 acres, amounts to 1,612,800*l.* The uncultivated land or common, upon which horses, cattle, and sheep are turned out to graze, may be worth, on an average, not less than 6*l.* per acre, the number of acres estimated being 35,000, the amount will be 210,000*l.* There are about 500 farm-houses and cottages, which with the stock and farming utensils, averaged at 100*l.* each, would amount to 50,000*l.* The houses in Castletown or Rushen, the principal town, are computed at 500; in Douglas there are about 6,000 inhabitants, in Peel Town, 1,200, &c. The houses are substantial, but not costly; the shops pretty well stocked with goods. 300*l.* are deemed an extremely moderate average for each house and the property contained in it, in the towns: taking the total number, which is stated to be 4928 at 300 each, the amount will be 1,478,400*l.* The shipping are estimated at the low average of 10*l.* per ton, amounting for the tonnage above-stated to 95,850*l.* The gold coin is not abundant, and silver coin is very scarce. The copper coinage is peculiar to the island, 14 minks-pence being equal to one English shilling. Greenock notes are the chief substitute for gold. The different coins in circulation may amount to 5,000*l.* Total, 3,502,050*l.*

(B.) SCILLY ISLANDS.

Population.—The latest authorities state these islands to contain about 1,000 inhabitants.

Lands.—More than 2,000 acres are said to be used for agricultural purposes.

Shipping.—The small craft employed in fishing, as pilots, &c., may probably exceed 300 tons.

Productions.—Sheep and rabbits are produced in abundance; some cattle and horses, which are small, poultry, vegetables, &c. The productions raised every year are estimated at the very moderate average of 10*l.* per head on the total population.

VALUE.

Private Property.—As the lands are similar to those in England, being distant but 30 miles west of the Land's End, they are taken at the same average—42*l.* per acre, amounting for 2,000 acres to 84,000*l.* The small vessels belonging to these isles are estimated at only 10*l.* per ton; for 300 tons 3,000*l.* The money in circulation must exceed 500*l.* which is but 10*s.* for each inhabitant. Total, 90,500*l.*

(C.) GUERNSEY.

Population.—According to the latest accounts the inhabitants of this island are computed at 15,000.

Lands.—Guernsey has a verdant soil; nearly the whole island is cultivated.

Shipping.—It appears from the public accounts, for the year ended the 5th January 1812, that 94 vessels, admeasuring 9485 tons, navigated by 855 men belonged to Guernsey.

Productions.—Cattle, butter, cheese, &c. are produced in great abundance. These may be fairly estimated at 10*l.* a head per annum on the population.

VALUE.

Public Property.—The fort at the town of Port St. Pierre, the public workhouse or hospital, and other public buildings in the island must be worth more than 100,000*l.*

Private Property.—The cultivated lands are estimated at 42*l.* per acre, as in England; and the uncultivated, which are susceptible of

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EXPLANATORY NOTES, *continued.*

cultivation at little labour and expence, at 10*l.* The island is supposed to contain about 400 farms, which with the stock and agricultural utensils, averaged at 200*l.* for each farm, the total amount will be 80,000*l.* From the trade of the town of St. Pierre, which has a haven that annually receives and sends out a considerable number of shipping, we are inclined to believe, that the buildings, merchandize, furniture, &c., in the town could not be purchased for 1,000,000*l.* The vessels belonging to this island are taken at the very low average of 10*l.* per ton,—9485 tons 94,850*l.* And the gold and silver coin in circulation at 2*l.* for each individual of the population. Total, 2,584,850*l.*

(D.) JERSEY.

Population.—There are, in this island, about 20,000 inhabitants, of whom 3,000 are capable of bearing arms.

Lands.—There is very little barren ground in the island; nearly the whole is either cultivated or susceptible of being so at very little labour and expence.

Shipping.—The public accounts for Great Britain, for the year ended the 5th January 1812, state that 59 vessels, admeasuring 6,003 tons, navigated by 549 men belonged to Jersey.

Productions.—The cattle, poultry, vegetables, and other productions, the growth of this island, may be fairly estimated at an average of 10*l.* per head annually, on the total number of inhabitants.

Imports and Exports.—According to Mr. Falle, more than 20 ships sailed annually to Newfoundland, and after taking in a cargo of fish proceeded to the Mediterranean, and called at the markets there, making their voyages very beneficial. They exported a considerable quantity of knit hose, of which many thousand pairs were made every week; the other articles of exports are small cattle, cyder, butter, &c. They trade to Ireland, the Isle of Man, the West Indies, Gibraltar, and the Mediterranean; but their most extensive traffic is with Great Britain.

VALUE.

Public Property.—The fortifications in Jersey, consisting of Elizabeth Castle, an immense fortress that is almost impregnable, occupying nearly a mile in circuit, and Fort St. Aubyn, near a town of the same name, which is also fortified with cannon, and the various public buildings may be valued at the least at 150,000*l.*

Private Property.—The soil, with respect to fertility and the productions raised, is similar to that of England; the lands, cultivated and uncultivated, are, therefore, taken at the same medium rate, namely 42*l.* per acre for the former, and 10*l.* for the latter. The farms, like those in Guernsey, are estimated at 400 with the stock and farming utensils, at the low average of 200*l.* each, amounting to 80,000*l.* It is computed, that there are about 2,000 houses and shops in the towns of St. Helier and St. Aubyn, which, with the merchandize and furniture, may be averaged at 500*l.* each, making a total of 1,000,000*l.* The shipping are estimated at 10*l.* per ton, according to the tonnage above-mentioned. The gold and silver coin in circulation may probably exceed a sum equal to 2*l.* per head on the population. Total, 2,610,030*l.*

(E.) ALDERNEY AND SARK.

Population.—The inhabitants in Alderney are computed at 1,000; in Sark there are about 500.

Lands, &c.—The soil is nearly alike in the four last-mentioned islands, and is estimated accordingly. The small craft, belonging to these islands, are included in the shipping already stated for Guernsey, of which they are dependencies. The other articles are estimated in proportion. The value of these islands, as stated in the table, is as follows:—Alderney, 245,400*l.* Sark, 222,500*l.*

(F.) GIBRALTAR.

Population.—According to the present governor, the inhabitants may be computed at 16,000, exclusive of the garrison, and exclusive of about 3,000 transient persons, who are supposed to sleep within the walls every night.

Lands.—There is no land, except what the houses and buildings stand upon, and some little laid out in gardens and for pasturage, the value of which is inconsiderable.

Shipping.—The vessels which belong to Gibraltar may be fairly taken at an average of 3,000 tons.

Productions.—There being no land for agriculture, the inhabitants are chiefly dependent on the neighbouring states for the means of subsistence. In the cooped in pasturage and gardens they raise very few cattle, some poultry, vegetables, and fruits, which may average 50,000*l.* per annum.

Imports and Exports.—Gibraltar has become an emporium for immense quantities of colonial produce and British merchandize, in consequence of the ports on the Continent being shut against this country. The Americans imported large quantities of tobacco, Havanna sugars, coffee, and all sorts of East India goods, which were smuggled, and took in return money, wine, brandy, &c. It is assumed by several respectable merchants, who reside there, that 800,000 pieces of nankeen are annually exported,—and that the exports on an average of years could not be less than 2,000,000*l.* It is observable, that a small *ad valorem* revenue, supposing 2½ per cent on this sum, would have produced to the crown 50,000*l.* There being no custom-house, nor any revenue officer stationed at Gibraltar, whose presence might serve as a check to smuggling, it is there carried on to an incalculable extent.

EXPLANATORY NOTES, *continued.*

VALUE.

Public Property.—The very extensive fortifications at Gibraltar, which are considered impregnable and upon which immense sums have been laid out, barracks, arsenals, artillery, &c. (there being constantly in time of war 5000 men in garrison) together with public buildings of every description, must be worth more than 3,000,000*l.*

Private Property.—There is very little land, which is chiefly used for buildings, and is extremely valuable; the land not built upon may be estimated at 200,000*l.* It is impossible to state the value of the immense quantities of British merchandize and colonial produce at Gibraltar of late years.—It is assumed by the principal merchants there, that the British manufactures alone in the last year amounted to 800,000*l.* The shipping are estimated at the very moderate average of 10*l.* per ton. There cannot be less than 100,000*l.* of gold and silver coin in circulation; money may, however, from the frequent remittances made to this and other countries be considered more an article of merchandize than a measure of value. Total, 5,130,000*l.*

(G.) MALTA, including GOZA.

Population.—Malta contains upwards of 80,000 inhabitants, and Goza about 14,000 (from which it is distant but 5 miles), total, 94,000. A census was taken of the population in 1803; but it has greatly increased since that period.

Lands.—Mr. Boisgelin, in his History of Malta (Vol. I., pages 109 and 110) states, that the land produces cotton of an excellent quality, vegetables, and fruits, particularly oranges, and some grain, but not enough to subsist the inhabitants: little more, however, than half the island is cultivated, the rest being rocky and barren.

Shipping.—The vessels are small which belong to Malta; they trade to different ports in the Mediterranean; and may, perhaps, not exceed 4,000 tons.

Productions.—A sum equal to 10*l.* per head on the population is deemed a moderate estimate of the value of the grain, cotton, vegetables, fruits, &c., annually raised in Malta and Goza.

Imports and Exports.—Malta, like Gibraltar, has become a considerable mart of commerce during the present war. It is a depot for immense quantities of British merchandize and colonial produce. See Gibraltar, just mentioned.

VALUE.

Public Property.—The fortifications at La Valetta, the principal town in Malta, are a most stupendous work; they are so strongly fortified by nature and art as to be deemed impregnable,—the great number of cannon, the arsenals, barracks, magazines, municipal and provincial buildings, as the palace of the grand master, infirmary, inns or hotels of the seven tongues, churches, &c., must have cost considerably more than 4,000,000*l.*

Private Property.—20*l.* per acre may be considered a fair average for the cultivated lands; that which is in the neighbourhood of the principal towns is worth 400 dollars, or 100*l.* Goza has a more fertile soil than Malta. The houses in Malta are built of stone, some of which, in the towns, are very large. There are two principal cities, La Valetta and Citta Vecchia, and 22 villages or casals with hamlets intervening between them: the island is almost covered with houses and villages. These may be fairly estimated as follows:—houses, shops, merchandize, furniture, &c., in the towns, 2,000,000*l.* Buildings, stock, and agricultural utensils on farms, 100,000*l.* The vessels belonging to Malta are valued at 10*l.* per ton. The gold and silver coin in circulation, a considerable trade carried on there constantly requiring large sums, may greatly exceed 200,000*l.*; but it may be observed, as has already been remarked of Gibraltar, that money may be considered more an article of merchandize than a measure of value. Total, 7,740,000*l.*

(H.) MELIGOLAND,

Population.—We have recently learnt that this island contains about 3,000 persons, the greater part of whom have resided there for the purpose of promoting a commercial intercourse since the ports of the Continent have been shut against this country. The natives are chiefly fishermen and pilots.

Productions.—The inhabitants are principally subsisted from their fisheries, whose annual value cannot be less than 5,000*l.*

VALUE.

Public and Private Property.—There is a light-house on the island, which was built by the republic of Hamburg, and has since been repaired by the British government. Many buildings have been erected there, during the present war, chiefly for the reception of goods; but as the amount of these has greatly fluctuated, we have not ventured to take this article at more than 30,000*l.* The small craft employed in the fisheries, &c., may be estimated at 5,000*l.* And the money in circulation, 1,000*l.* Total, 36,000*l.*

CHAPTER IX.

ON THE BRITISH COLONIES IN NORTH AMERICA.

A general View of the Population.—The public and private Property in each of the British Colonies in North America.—The new Property created annually in these Colonies from the labour, skill, and capital employed in Agriculture, Trade, Navigation, and Fisheries, &c. illustrated and explained by Tables, exhibiting in one view a Statistical Analysis of the present value, strength, and resources of these Colonies.—Conclusion of the Chapter.—General reflections on the advantages to be derived from the Fisheries.

THE final separation of 13 Colonies, by the Treaty of Peace concluded at Paris in November 1782, left to the Parent State the several Colonies of Nova Scotia,—Lower and Upper Canada,—St. John's, now Prince Edward's Island,—Cape Breton,—Newfoundland,—and the British Settlement at Hudson's Bay. Soon after the conclusion of the American War, a part of the Territory of Nova Scotia was converted into a separate Colony called New Brunswick.

These Colonies only require the fostering attention of the Parent State to render them of incalculable value to the nation. Their progress towards maturity has been slow, arising from the thinness of the population in proportion to the vast extent of territory, and the difficulties which new settlers have to encounter in a howling wilderness, struggling at the same time with a climate where the winters are exceedingly severe; but these difficulties, to which the early inhabitants were exposed, will not be felt by succeeding settlers. The grain and provisions now raised, beyond what is necessary for the consumption of the existing population, will be amply sufficient to supply the wants of emigrants until by the cultivation of the soil they shall be enabled to support themselves, which may be generally effected from the crop of the second year.

In Upper Canada the soil is generally rich and fertile, which enables the industrious Agriculturist very soon to raise a sufficiency of Grain, Potatoes, Vegetables, and

animal food, Milk, Butter, and Cheese, for the support of his family, with a surplus after a couple of years, augmenting yearly for the purchase of cloathing and other necessities, and to enable him to extend his improvements, and to erect grist and saw mills, — the latter for preparing timber for domestic use and for exportation. Peach and Apple Orchards are generally planted as soon as possible. The first produces Brandy, the latter Cyder, sufficient for the consumption of the family in a few years, while the refuse grain and potatoes feed abundance of Hogs and Poultry, the former however finding sufficient food in the woods for a considerable part of the year.

These ultimate advantages and comforts are not, however, attainable without great personal exertions and industry. But who would not be industrious? — Who would not submit to certain privations for a short period with the sure prospect of such a solid and permanent benefit to himself and family? — A free-hold descending to his children.

The innumerable interstices still to be filled up in these vast territories yet thinly inhabited, where each Farm is surrounded by extensive tracts of unoccupied Crown Lands, offer great encouragement to new settlers, who would not encounter the difficulties which those who have preceded them experienced. They would receive assistance from their neighbours as well as instruction, as to the best mode of preparing and cultivating their lands. They would enjoy the advantages and protection of a civil government, long since established, and innumerable facilities, which do not attach to the first settlers in a wild country.

Here therefore is an inexhaustible resource for the beneficial employment of the redundant population of the mother country, particularly for the agricultural emigrants. The resources of the parent state would be augmented by the consumption of British Manufactures, and by the exportation of the various productions of the soil in *Timber, Corn, Hemp, Flax, Flax-seed, Pot-ashes*, and other valuable articles of Commerce, rendering the labour of these Emigrants as beneficial to the parent state as if they remained in their native country.

It will be seen by a reference to the Table annexed (which is elucidated by copious notes) that there are already in Upper and Lower Canada about 300,000 inhabitants: — that about 3,800,000 acres are occupied in Farms, and 100,000,000 of acres still remain in woods. It is indeed impossible to estimate the extent of this vast region; nor can we contemplate without wonder and astonishment the probable situation of this fine country in two centuries hence, inhabited perhaps by many millions of people speaking the English language, and enjoying the blessings of a British Constitution, with populous cities and a flourishing commerce.

New Brunswick and Nova Scotia from being both watered by the Bay of Fundy enjoy advantages over Canada, which more than compensate a greater sterility of soil. These are to be traced to the valuable and extensive Fisheries in the Bay of Fundy, which in point of abundance and variety of the finest fish exceed all calculation,

and may be considered as a mine of gold,—a treasure which cannot be estimated too high, since with little labour, comparatively speaking, enough could be obtained to feed all Europe.

To the maritime population, which may prove redundant, the lands bordering on this vast Bay or arm of the Sea would afford a most comfortable asylum. A hardy race may be here reared, whose labour in a commercial point of view would prove of incalculable value, while their services in the British Navy would be accessible in the event of future wars. Here food in abundance may be easily obtained, not only from the cultivation of the soil, but from the much more prolific resources which the sea affords, where little capital and much less labour are required in proportion to the returns which would be obtained.

Since the trade with the United States has been so greatly obstructed, the produce of the Fisheries in the British Colonies, thus encouraged by the removal of all competition, has been greatly augmented; and nothing but a more extended population is required to carry this valuable branch of trade almost to any given extent.

It will be seen by a reference to the Notes in the Table annexed to this Chapter, that the inhabitants of the United States derive incalculable advantages, and employ a vast number of men and vessels in the fishery in the River St. Lawrence, and on the coast of Nova Scotia, which exclusively belong to Great Britain. The dense population of the Northern States, and their local situation in the vicinity of the most prolific fishing stations, have enabled them to acquire vast wealth by the indulgence of this country. This wealth is more accessible to His Majesty's subjects from the circumstance of their inhabiting territories bordering on the waters where the fish are most abundant.

The Island of Cape Breton was considered of some consequence while in the possession of the French, particularly on account of its Coal Mines; but it has lost its importance since it became a British Colony. The Bay of Canso however, which separates it from Nova Scotia, renders it an excellent fishing station; but others are preferred in the neighbouring seas.

St. John's, now Prince Edward's Island, in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, when in possession of the French was cultivated to a considerable extent, and produced many cattle; but being abandoned by its industrious inhabitants that were slowly replaced by British Settlers, those advantages which it possessed, particularly from the greatest abundance of fish which surround its coasts, have not been rendered beneficial from the very limited number of settlers, now estimated at about 5000, cultivating 50,000 acres of land out of more than 1,200,000, that might produce food for more than half a million; as the lands are generally fertile, but still more the seas which surround it. The Colony however is in a progressive, though a slow state of improvement, and would afford an advantageous asylum for the superabundant maritime labourers in the parent state.

Newfoundland has long been known as a most valuable fishing station. Its pro-

ductions and fisheries may amount at present to about one million sterling a year. The reader is referred to the annexed Table for a particular detail of the value of this settlement, its population, exports and imports, &c.

Hudson's Bay is the only remaining Settlement in British North America. It consists merely of Forts belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company, who send three ships annually with merchandize, suitable to the wants of the miserable savages who inhabit that dreary and steril region, which are exchanged for furs to the value of about £40,000 sterling a year. The Table annexed to this Chapter, which is elucidated by notes, will explain what may be further necessary respecting this branch of trade.

CONCLUSION OF THE CHAPTER.

The whole population of the British Colonies and Settlements in North America cannot be estimated at present at more than about 500,000 souls,—perhaps somewhat less, although these vast countries are capable of supporting many millions. The whole shipping are not estimated at more than 1936 vessels, making in the whole 342,753 tons, and navigated by 19,360 mariners. The value of the productions raised annually, including the fisheries, is estimated at £13,215,474 sterling, of which is exported £3,495,204, while the Imports were in 1812, £2,965,339; not equal upon the whole to the single Island of Jamaica. *See the summary recapitulation in Table No. 8, annexed to this Chapter.*

From this brief view of the present situation of these Colonies, it is evident that they can only be considered now as in their infancy. Their physical resources are however almost incalculable, and nothing but a more dense population of industrious settlers is required to render them a great and valuable acquisition to the parent state; it ought ever to be kept in view, that the whole of the valuable fisheries in North America exclusively belong at this present time to the British Crown, which gives to this country a monopoly in all the markets in Europe and the West Indies, or a right to a certain valuable consideration from all foreign Nations, to whom the British Government may concede the privilege of carrying on a fishery in these seas.

The expence of protecting these colonies entitles the crown to a tonnage duty on all ships licensed to carry on such fisheries; and perhaps until the British population is sufficient to compass the object of supplying all countries, this may be the proper course to pursue. If not, the national rights will be invaded to a great extent, and the general competition will retard the advance of the British Colonists to that degree of opulence and prosperity, to which the resources they possess so justly entitle them, while the state derives no benefit, but on the contrary sustains a great loss.

Private fisheries are a source of great profit to the individuals, in this and other countries, who have acquired a right to such fisheries. Why therefore should not the

United Kingdom derive a similar advantage from the fisheries it possesses within the range of its extensive territories in North America (perhaps the richest and most prolific in the world), by declaring every ship and vessel liable to confiscation which should presume to fish in those seas without previously paying a tonnage duty, and receiving a licence limited to a certain period when fish may be caught, with the privilege of curing such fish in the British territories?—All nations to have an equal claim to such licences limited to certain stations, but to permit none to supply the British West Indies except His Majesty's subjects, whether resident in the colonies or in the parent state.

Unquestionably a large revenue might be derived from this source; since nothing could exceed the advantages, which would result to the adventurers in the pursuit of an object, where the profit would be so certain in seas producing an abundance of fish of all kinds saleable in foreign markets. While such a system increased the revenue of the crown, to which it would be so justly entitled, it would also improve the condition of the British colonies from the resort of vast fleets from Europe and the United States.

The population of all, or most of the Nations of Europe with some few exceptions is in the progress of augmentation: hence an additional quantity of food will be necessary. This food can be procured in the British Seas in America to any given extent. In fact, no limit can be fixed to the extent of the food, which can be obtained in these waters.

The period has arrived after an arduous struggle for above twenty years of a war of unexampled expence in blood and treasure, when those assigned to direct the affairs of the British Empire will have leisure to contemplate the various resources of the nation and its colonies and dependencies, so as not only to give an impetus to industry in all the extended dominions of the crown; but also to augment the national revenues in every case, where it can be effected through the medium of temporary privileges granted to foreign nations, and where, from the deficiency of population, such benefits cannot operate as an injury to His Majesty's subjects.

The first and most important object is clearly to understand the actual resources which the nation possesses; to investigate them with that attention which is necessary to form just and accurate conclusions; and ultimately, to pursue that line of policy which, in the result of such investigations, shall prove most beneficial to the general interests of the nation.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE OF THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA;

Shewing the Population, Number of Acres of Land cultivated and uncultivated, Value of Productions raised, Shipping, Exports and Imports, Fisheries, Ship-building, Circulating Specie; and an Estimate of the Amount of Public and Private Property, exhibiting the Value of each Colony, as an integral part of the British Empire.—From Authentic Documents and the latest Authorities. (1812.)

POWER AND RESOURCES.

	Population.	Lands.		Shipping.			Estimated Value of Productions raised annually, including the Fisheries.	Estimated Value of Exports.	Estimated Value of Imports.
		Cultivated.	Uncultivated. §	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.			
	Inhabitants.	Acres.	Acres.				£	£	£
Canada, Upper and Lower (A)	300,000	3,800,000	100,000,000	661	143,893	6,610	7,302,827	*1,302,827	†1,180,000
New Brunswick . . . (B)	60,000	600,000	20,000,000	410	87,690	4,100	1,913,987	713,987	579,146
Nova Scotia (C)	100,000	1,000,000	12,000,000	328	42,222	3,280	2,607,330	607,330	492,584
Cape Breton (D)									
Saint John's, or Prince Edward's Island . . . (E)	3,000	30,000	2,000,000	7	948	70	69,302	9,302	7,326
Newfoundland (F)	5,000	50,000	1,200,000	32	5,917	320	216,434	116,434	94,445
Hudson's Bay (G)	18,000	10,000	.	495	61,543	4,950	1,065,594	705,594	572,338
	146	.	.	3	540	30	40,000	40,000	39,500
Totals.	486,146	5,490,100	135,200,000	1,936	342,753	19,360	13,215,474	3,495,474	2,965,339

VALUE.

	PUBLIC PROPERTY.		PRIVATE PROPERTY.							TOTAL.
	Estimated Value of Forts, Barracks, Arse- nals, Artillery, and all Public Buildings.	Estimated Value of Lands.		Estimated Value of Buildings, Stock, and Agricultural Utensils on Farms.	Estimated Value of Houses, Stores, Mer- chandize, and Furni- ture in the Towns.	Estimated Value of the Fisheries.	Estimated Value of Colonial Ves- sels, Ship- building, &c.	Estimated Circulating Specie.		
		Cultivated.	Uncultivated.							
									£	
Canada, Upper and Lower	1,000,000	11,400,000	2,500,000	4,070,000	4,000,000	.	143,360	300,000	23,413,360	
New Brunswick	10,000	1,800,000	500,000	810,000	500,000	1,000,000	50,000	50,000	4,720,000	
Nova Scotia	300,000	3,000,000	300,000	1,350,000	3,588,000	1,000,000	65,000	200,000	9,803,000	
Cape Breton	100,000	90,000	50,000	50,500	138,000	50,000	5,000	10,000	493,500	
Saint John's, or Prince Edward's Island	20,000	150,000	30,000	67,500	230,000	500,000	5,000	20,000	1,022,500	
Newfoundland	20,000	30,000	.	243,000	1,380,000	5,000,000	250,000	50,000	6,973,000	
Hudson's Bay	.	.	.	.	150,000	.	.	.	150,000	
Totals.	£1,450,000	16,470,000	3,380,000	6,591,000	9,986,000	7,550,000	518,360	630,000	46,575,360	

AGGREGATE VALUE OF EACH COLONY.

Canada, Upper and Lower	£23,413,360
New Brunswick	4,720,000
Nova Scotia	9,803,000
Cape Breton	493,500
Saint John's, or Prince Edward's Island	1,022,500
Newfoundland	6,973,000
Hudson's Bay	150,000
	<u>£46,575,360</u>

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

Population.—486,146 Souls.
 Lands.—5,490,000 Acres cultivated:
 135,200,000 Idem uncultivated.
 Shipping.—1,936 Vessels.
 342,753 Tons.
 19,360 Men.
 Estimated Value of Productions raised annually, including the Fisheries £13,215,474
 Estimated Value of Exports (1812) £3,495,474
 Idem Idem Imports (1812) £2,965,339

PUBLIC PROPERTY.		
Estimated Value of Forts, Barracks, Arsenals, Artillery, and all Public Buildings		£1,450,000
PRIVATE PROPERTY.		
Estimated Value of Lands, viz. Cultivated	£16,470,000	
Uncultivated	3,380,000	
	<u>£19,850,000</u>	
Estimated Value of Buildings, Stock, and Agricultural Utensils on Farms	6,591,000	
Estimated Value of Houses, Stores, Merchandize, and Furniture in the Towns	9,986,000	
Estimated Value of the Fisheries	7,550,000	
Idem Idem Colonial Vessels, Ship-building, &c.	518,360	
Idem Circulating Specie	630,000	
	<u>45,195,360</u>	
Grand Total.	<u>£46,575,360</u>	

§ It is presumed, that a considerable part of the uncultivated land belongs to the Crown.

* Including Exports, *via* St. John's to the United States, estimated at £70,000.

† Including Imports Idem from the United States Idem £190,000.

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

(A.) CANADA.

Population.—The latest writers agree in stating 200,000 inhabitants in Lower Canada; according to Mr. Gray, Upper Canada contains 100,000. Total 300,000.

Lands.—Mr. Lambert's statistical statement, in 1808, has 3,800,000 acres cultivated, which is somewhat more on an average than 10 acres for each inhabitant. In this very extensive territory, there cannot be less than 100,000,000 acres, or, perhaps, ad infinitum uncultivated.

Shipping.—The number of vessels is stated in the Table from the annual printed returns of that Province, being exclusive of the small craft employed in the fisheries and inland trade.

Productions.—Canada abounds in timber, which is used in buildings and for various purposes. They raise cattle, sheep, hogs, poultry, grain, vegetables, &c. These may be estimated, for the consumption, on a medium of years, at 20*l.* per head on the population, making the sum of 6,000,000*l.* to which is to be added the exports, 1,302,827*l.* Total 7,302,827*l.*

Imports and Exports.—The amount of the imports and exports, respectively, is stated from the above-mentioned returns.

VALUE.

Public Property.—There are very extensive fortifications at Quebec, requiring more than 5,000 troops in garrison, barracks for upwards of 2000 men, artillery, ordnance, government houses, and forts up the river St. Lawrence: the whole of the public property in Canada may be fairly estimated at 1,000,000*l.*

Private Property.—Good arable land is sold at 5*l.* per acre, indifferent land four and five dollars, woodland two dollars; 3*l.* may be considered the average. Uncultivated land, in the back townships of Canada, may be bought at the sheriff's sales for 6*d.* an acre. A tolerable idea may be formed of the value of the buildings, stock, and utensils on farms from the information afforded in the 1st. Vol. pages 140, 156, and 164 of Lambert's Travels in Lower Canada, &c. and pages 138 and 139 of Gray's Letters from Canada. Canada, as we have seen, contains 300,000 inhabitants. Of these, 30,000 may be said to reside in Towns, and the remaining 270,000 to follow the occupation of farmers. As it appears from the above mentioned authors, that the farms are numerous settled from the people inclining much to domiciliary habits; we may fairly suppose an average of ten persons on a farm, the number of farms being 27,000 which, estimated one with another at 150*l.* each, would amount to 4,050,000*l.* On a superficial view, this number may appear to be great, but it should seem not to be exaggerated when it is recollected that they line the shores of the St. Lawrence for more than 400 miles, and have the appearance of an immense town. It is presumed that there are in Canada 8,000 houses and stores contained in the towns of Quebec, Montreal, les Trois Rivières, Kingston, Sorelle, and other minor towns, the island of Orleans inclusive. These, taken at 500*l.* each, viz. The houses, stores, and wharves averaged at 200*l.* and the merchandize, furniture, &c. at 300*l.* amount to 4,000,000*l.* The colonial vessels, ship-building, and materials in Canada may be estimated as follows:—

About 30 registered vessels belonging to Quebec, built in the province, taken at an average of 50 tons each.	£.
Total 1,500 tons at 10 <i>l.</i> per ton (being the average price they are contracted for) would amount to	15,000
500 Small craft in the harbours, bays, and creeks of Canada, estimated at 100 <i>l.</i> each	50,000
It appears from the printed annual returns from Canada, that there was built in that Province in 1810—26 vessels, } admeasuring 5836 tons, which at 10 <i>l.</i> per ton, amount to	58,360
The ship-building materials, &c. at Quebec, Montreal, and Sorelle cannot amount to less than	20,000
Total shipping	£143,360

With respect to the circulating specie, every person may be presumed to have some money more or less; an average of 1*l.* for each individual of the population will be found to amount to 300,000*l.* According to Mr. Lambert 20,000*l.* are annually circulated in Quebec and Montreal in the business of ship-building alone. Total value 23,413,360*l.*

(B) NEW BRUNSWICK.

Population.—The latest authorities state this province to contain 60,000 inhabitants.

Lands.—There appears to be no data for ascertaining the precise quantity of land in cultivation:—But supposing an average of 10 acres for each person, as land is here in great abundance and the price low, it follows that 600,000 acres are in cultivation. And calculating with reference to the extent of territory, there cannot be less than 20,000,000 acres in woods and uncultivated.

Productions.—The articles produced in New Brunswick, of which timber is the principal, are the same as in Canada, already mentioned; to which is to be added the produce of the Fisheries. The consumption may be estimated at a sum equal to 20*l.* per head annually on the total number of inhabitants, and the exports 713,987*l.* Total 1,913,987*l.*

VALUE.

Public Property.—Fort Howe, and the other works of defence, public buildings, &c. cannot be worth less than 10,000*l.*

Private Property.—The lands, buildings, stock, and agricultural utensils on farms are valued in proportion to those of Canada, the occupations, and pursuits of the people being similar in both provinces. St. John's or Frederic's Town and the other towns, which are inconsiderable, may probably contain 2000 houses and stores: the buildings estimated at 100*l.* each, and the merchandize and furniture in them at 150*l.* together 250*l.*, making a total of 500,000*l.*

Fisheries.—The Fisheries of New Brunswick are become very valuable; besides the consumption, there is a considerable quantity of fish exported to the West Indies and other parts every year: as a capital, they may be fairly estimated at 1,000,000*l.* Estimating 600 small vessels in the different bays, harbours, creeks, and rivers, belonging to New Brunswick at 100*l.* each would amount to 50,000*l.* it is very probable that a sum exceeding 50,000*l.* in money is in circulation, which is not 1*l.* for each inhabitant. Total 4,720,000*l.*

EXPLANATORY NOTES continued.

(C.) NOVA SCOTIA.

Population.—The inhabitants of this province are now computed at 100,000.

Lands.—It may be presumed that in Nova Scotia, where land is abundant and costs little, there cannot be less than 1,000,000 acres in cultivation, which is an average of 10 acres per head on the population. And, perhaps, 12,000,000 acres uncultivated, the greatest part of which is in woods.

Shipping.—The vessels employed in the trade of Nova Scotia, of which Halifax is the principal port, are stated in the Table, according to the returns printed there annually.

Productions.—Timber, grain, cattle, poultry, &c. are here in great abundance. The fisheries are extremely valuable from the great supplies furnished for the subsistence of the inhabitants and for exportation. The total amount of which, on an average of years, may possibly not be less than 2,607,330*l.* as follows:—for the consumption, 20*l.* for each individual of the population per annum, 2,000,000*l.*; and the exports, 607,330*l.* Total 2,607,330*l.*

VALUE.

Public Property.—The fortifications, arsenals, dock-yard, barracks, &c. in Halifax, and the works of defence and public buildings in other parts of Nova Scotia may be fairly estimated at 300,000*l.*

Private Property.—The lands, buildings, stock, and implements of husbandry on farms, are estimated, with reference to the extent of the province and number of inhabitants, in proportion to those of Canada. It is supposed, that there are in Halifax, Shelburne, Annapolis Royal, and other minor towns, about 7,800 houses.—The buildings may be valued at 160*l.* each, and the merchandize and furniture in each building at an average of 300*l.* together 460*l.* amounting to 3,588,000*l.*

Fisheries.—The fishery of Nova Scotia has risen considerably in value within the last 20 years. In 1764, the fish taken amounted to 47,610*l.* In 1810, it gave employment to 328 vessels, admeasuring 42,222 tons, navigated by 3,280 men, exclusive of small craft. 20,000 quintals of fish were imported into Jamaica alone, in the latter year, the greatest part of which was ascertained to be the produce of this fishery.

There are about 30 registered vessels belonging to Halifax, averaging, perhaps, 50 tons each,—1,500 tons at	£.
10 <i>l.</i> per ton	15,000
Estimating 500 small vessels in the different bays, harbours, rivers, and creeks, at 100 <i>l.</i> each, the amount	50,000
of which will be	

Total shipping . . . £ 65,000

As the trade carried on in this province is very extensive, particularly at Halifax, the coins in circulation cannot amount to less than 200,000*l.* being an average of 10*s.* for each person of the population. Total 9,803,000*l.*

(D.) CAPE BRETON.

Population.—The latest writers state the number of inhabitants in Cape Breton differently; perhaps the medium, 3000, may be found correct.

Lands.—Probably more than 30,000 acres are cultivated, being an average of 10 acres per head on the population; and 2,000,000 acres in woods and otherwise, uncultivated.

Productions.—There are coal mines in the island, which, however, of late years, have proved almost unproductive. The articles raised for consumption, joined to the produce of the fisheries, cannot be less averaged than 20*l.* for each individual of the population per annum, amounting to 60,000*l.* And the exports 9,302*l.* Total 69,302*l.*

VALUE.

Public Property.—Forts Louisburgh and Dauphin and the public buildings in Cape Breton, although formerly of considerable importance, cannot now, from the works of defence being reduced in consequence of a diminution in the fisheries, be estimated at more than 100,000*l.*

Private Property.—Lands in cultivation are averaged at 3*l.* per acre, and the uncultivated lands at 6*d.* Buildings, stock, and farming utensils on farms, are estimated as follows:—100 of the largest class of farms, at 200*l.* each, 20,000*l.* and 200 smaller at somewhat more than 150*l.* averaged, 30,500*l.* Total 50,500*l.*—In the towns of Louisburgh, Sidney, &c. there are about 300 houses and stores: the buildings are taken at an average of 180*l.* each, and the merchandize, furniture, &c. in each building, at 280*l.* amounting in the whole to 138,000*l.*

Fisheries.—Cape Breton was formerly a considerable fishing station; its fisheries have, however, for the last 20 years, gradually diminished, and are now become so unimportant that we cannot venture to estimate them at more than 50,000*l.* Total 493,500*l.*

(E.) ST. JOHN'S, OR PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND.

Fisheries.—This island is of the highest importance to the United Kingdom. Whether the possession of it be considered with relation to the Americans, or as an acquisition of a great maritime power, it is worthy of the most particular attention of Government. Mr. Stewart has justly remarked, in his account of that island, (page 296,) that “the fishery carried on, from the American States,

EXPLANATORY NOTES *continued.*

" in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, for some years past, is very extensive, and is known to be one of the greatest resources of the
 " wealth of the Eastern States, from which about 2000 schooners, of from 70 to 100 tons, are annually sent into the Gulph; of
 " these, about 1400 make their fish in the Straits of Belleisle, and on the Labrador shore, from whence what is intended for the
 " European market is shipped off, without being sent to their own ports: about 600 American schooners make their fares on the
 " north side of the island, and often make two trips in a season, returning with full cargoes to their own ports, where the fish are
 " dried; the number of men employed in this fishery is estimated at between *fifteen and twenty thousand*, and the profits on it are
 " known to be very great. To see such a source of wealth and naval power on our own coasts, and in our very harbours, abandoned
 " to the Americans, is much to be regretted, and would be distressing were it not that the means of re-occupying the whole, with
 " such advantages as must soon preclude all competition, is afforded in the cultivation and settlement of Prince Edward's Island,

VALUE.

Public Property.—The forts, blockhouses, barracks, and other public buildings in this island, cannot be worth less than 20,000*l.*

Private Property.—Cultivated lands, of which there are about 50,000 acres, may be fairly averaged at 3*l.* per acre, amounting to 150,000*l.*

Uncultivated lands, a considerable part of which is in woods, would certainly obtain 30,000*l.* being but 6*d.* per acre. Farms, comprising buildings, stock, and farming utensils, may be thus stated:—150 of the largest at 200*l.* each, and 250 averaging 150*l.* making together 67,500*l.* Estimating 500 houses and stores in Charlotte Town, George Town, Prince Town, and other settled parts of the island, viz. the buildings at 180*l.* each, and the merchandize, furniture, &c. in each building, at 280*l.* the total amount would be 230,000*l.* From what has been mentioned respecting the fisheries, they may be reasonably estimated, as a British capital, at 500,000*l.* The present value of this island, as will be seen by the Table, is 1,022,500*l.*

(F.) NEWFOUNDLAND.

Population.—Newfoundland contained 19,106 inhabitants in 1789, and only 16,097 in 1791. Several thousand persons winter there, for the purpose of building and repairing small vessels, and erecting scaffolds for drying fish. About 18,000 are constantly on the spot.

Lands.—According to Mr. Macpherson, there were 8,034 acres cultivated in 1785, probably now increased to 10,000.

VALUE.

Fisheries.—Newfoundland gives employment, annually, to 495 vessels, admeasuring 61,543 tons, navigated by 4,950 seamen, besides 2,000 fish shallops, measuring about 20,000 tons, which may employ, at the least, 6,000 men more; taking 600,000 quintals of fish, which, at 15*s.* per quintal, together with salmon, cod-oil, and seal-oil, amount at least to 500,000*l.* This fishery, viewed as a capital, may be fairly estimated at 5,000,000*l.* inasmuch as the fish taken annually cannot amount to less than a sum equal to legal interest on that amount, 250,000*l.* and a like sum for labour and expences. And it may be remarked, that if the fishery was carried on to its utmost extent, there is no doubt but it would yield three times that sum, or indeed to any amount for which consumption could be found.

There are about 3,000 houses and stores in the towns of St. John, Placentia, and Bonavista, which, estimated with the merchandize and furniture at 460*l.* each, would amount to 1,380,000*l.*

The aggregate value of public and private property, in this colony, will be found from the Table to be 6,973,000*l.*

(G.) HUDSON'S BAY.

Population.—This article merely comprises the number of persons, 146, attached to the Company's establishment at Hudson's Bay.

VALUE.

The Company had four factories or settlements, and as many forts at Hudson's Bay, in the year 1712, that were valued at 108,514*l.* 19*s.* 8*d.* Their capital, about 100,000*l.* has since very little if at all increased; and having at different periods suffered from the depredations of the French, their property may not perhaps be estimated at more than 150,000*l.* The forts are said to be absolutely requisite for their people, who are employed in preparing cargoes, during the winter, for the arrival of their ships, and to protect them from the attempts of the savages and wild beasts.

If the Company were to be dissolved, and the trade to be laid open, these forts must be kept up by a rate or tax imposed on private traders. In this event, it is reasonable that the Company should receive some compensation for the large sums already laid out upon them, and should be entitled to further compensation for having, by means of their forts and long experience in the trade, carried on a commercial intercourse with the Indians, that has proved beneficial to this country.

CHAPTER X.

ON THE BRITISH AND CONQUERED COLONIES IN THE WEST INDIES.

A General View of the present State of the British and conquered Colonies in the West Indies considered separately.—Their population.—Cultivated and uncultivated Lands.—West India Shipping.—Estimated value of the productions raised annually in each Colony.—Estimated value of the Exports and Imports of each Colony.—Estimated amount of public and private property in Forts, Barracks, public Buildings, Arsenals, Artillery, and public Stores.—In Lands, cultivated and uncultivated.—In Buildings and Utensils on the different Estates.—In Houses, Stores, Merchandize, Furniture, &c.—In Shipping, and Coin employed as circulating medium—Illustrated by copious Tables with Explanatory Notes.—The great advantages which would result from an extended White Population.—The casualties and distresses, to which the Islands are exposed.—The evils explained, and remedies proposed.

THE colonies in the West Indies, at present in the possession of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, have become an object of vast interest to the parent state. It is therefore of the greatest importance that the resources they possess, and the advantages which the nation has, and may derive from these resources should be clearly and accurately understood.

It is only by this species of knowledge that such resources can be turned to the best account for the general benefit of the parent State, and these valuable colonies. Much has been done on the part of the nation, and individuals have likewise contributed not a little towards their improvement; yet still very much remains to be accomplished to render them productive to the extent of which they are capable.

The blood and treasure, expended in acquiring these colonies and in their protection, strongly point out the policy and necessity of adopting every measure, which shall tend to their general improvement. It is only by a perfect knowledge of their relative importance, and of those interesting facts, which shall lead to accurate conclusions, that this important object is to be attained.

Although much has been disclosed by Parliamentary inquiries, yet still many facts of vital importance remain hid from the public eye. These facts, some approximating to the truth, and others ascertained by public documents, are now presented for the first time to the public inspection through the medium of the Tables annexed to this Chapter, embracing every object concerning these colonies, so arranged as to exhibit at one view their resources and their importance to the parent state.

It will be seen by a reference to the Tables, that the value of these Colonies in the year 1812 stood thus:—

	Sterling.
14 British Colonies	£100,014,864
6 French Colonies captured during the War . .	£31,048,020
5 Dutch Colonies captured . . . Idem . .	39,157,540
3 Danish Colonies captured . . . Idem . .	5,014,440 — 75,220,000
Total 28	Total . . £ 175,234,864

That the estimated annual value of the productions of the British Colonies, including the food raised and consumed by the population, consisting of 64,994 whites, 38,081 persons of colour, and 634,096 negro labourers—total 732,171 souls, amounted to } £ 18,516,540

That the estimated annual value of the productions of the 14 captured colonies, including the food raised and consumed by the population, consisting of 35,829 whites, 26,253 persons of colour, and 372,800 negro labourers, making in the whole 434,882 souls, amounted to } 10,195,926

Total Value of Produce . . £ 28,712,466

That the estimated value of the exports from the British Colonies to Great Britain and Ireland amounted to £10,387,144, and to all other parts £ 800,716. Total. . . } £ 11,187,860

That the estimated value of the Imports into the British Colonies from the United Kingdom amounted to £5,979,940, and from all other parts £ 1,630,796. Total . . . } 7,630,796

Total Imports and Exports. British Colonies . . £ 18,818,656

That the estimated value of the Exports from the conquered Colonies	}	£ 5,793,106
to the United Kingdom amounted to £ 5,346,971, and to all other parts £ 446,133. Total.		
That the estimated value of the Imports into the conquered Colonies from	}	3,261,558
the United Kingdom amounted to £ 2,502,562, and from all other parts £ 758,996. Total		
Total Imports and Exports. Foreign Colonies . . .		<u>£ 9,054,664</u>

It further appears from the Tables, that the cultivated and uncultivated lands in the whole of the West India Colonies stand thus :—

	Cultivated Acres.	Uncultivated Acres.		
14 British Colonies . . .	1,301,095 . . .	3,806,698 . . .	Value of the whole	£ 30,061,048
14 Conquered Colonies . . .	2,168,000 . . .	uncertain in the Dutch Colonies . . .		34,567,000

On referring to the Tables annexed to this Chapter, every information will be conveyed to the mind of the reader within the shortest compass that is possible, which will be found necessary to form a tolerably accurate conception of the resources and value of these Colonies.

The most prominent feature, which they exhibit, is the great disparity between the white and the coloured and black population. In the British Colonies the Europeans (whose number fluctuates exceedingly) can be only estimated at 64,994, while the coloured and black population, according to returns which have been made and information received from individuals possessing local knowledge, cannot amount to less than 667,177, making less than one to ten.

From such a state of things it is impossible not to anticipate danger and the more especially, as it will be seen on inspecting the Tables, that in many of the smaller Islands the disparity is much greater, making in some instances *one to twenty*, and in others *one to thirty*. These Islands cannot be considered secure, unless protected at the expence of a more considerable military force, and at a greater pecuniary sacrifice than ought to be made by the parent state.

A remedy, however, can be applied with less difficulty at the present crisis than may appear at first view, to the incalculable advantage of the Colonies, and with no small benefit to the mother country. It will be seen on reference to the Table No. 9, that in all the Colonies there are more or less uncultivated lands principally belonging to the crown.

In Jamaica the uncultivated lands are estimated at 1,914,812 acres, in Trinidad somewhat less than 1,500,000, and in Dominica 100,000, more or less capable of yield-

ing different kinds of food, and other crops, according to the nature of the soil. In the other islands the uncultivated lands are estimated from 5,000 to 54,000 acres, except the Bahamas, the soil of which is for the most part barren, or unfavourable to the cultivation of the staples of the West India colonies.

Here, therefore, is an abundant resource for the comfortable settlement of that proportion of a redundant population, who may prefer a tropical climate. Of this class are many of the brave men, who have passed several years of their lives in the West Indies, and whose military services, in consequence of the happy return of peace, will be no longer wanted. To such men a small portion of land, which might otherwise remain in a wild state for centuries to come, would prove no sacrifice on the part of the Crown, while, to the individuals and to the nation, and also to the colonies, in which they may fix their residence, the advantages would be almost incalculable.

Hitherto the cultivation of the British colonies have been almost wholly confined to the articles of sugar, and rum, and melasses, with the exception of Jamaica, Dominica, and Grenada, where coffee settlements have been established. In Jamaica, indeed, since the revolution in St. Domingo, the coffee plantations have been carried to a great extent, so as to produce more than 29,000,000 of pounds (now worth £1,500,000 sterling) in the course of a year. Cotton is also cultivated in Grenada, and in several of the other Islands, but to no great extent.

Besides these staples, many other valuable articles might be cultivated on a small scale, by white settlers, which would afford an ample return for the labour employed, namely, *Cocoa*, *Tobacco* of a fine quality, *Arrow Root*, *Tapioca*, *Sarsaparilla*, *Ginger*, *Pimento*, *Castor Oil*, *Tamarinds*, besides articles for human subsistence already mentioned, such as *Indian Corn*, *Guinea Corn*, *Buck Wheat*, *Sweet Potatoes*, *Yams*, *Plantains*, *Bread-fruit*, &c.

Most of these, together with small plantations of coffee and cotton, could be cultivated in the narrow interstices of ravines, and on the face of the mountains; and might be readily sold to the merchants and exporters, or exchanged for such European necessities and comforts as the settlers might require.

With respect to food, it may be raised in great abundance, both for the use of man and animals, with much less labour, and with infinitely greater returns than in the Northern Colonies. Two crops of *Buck Wheat*, *Guinea corn*, and above all *Maize* or *Indian corn* may be obtained in the course of a year, besides *Plantains*, *Yams*, the *Bread-fruit* and the *Sweet Potatoe*, all which are found to be most palatable, wholesome, and nutritious food. Hogs and poultry to any extent may be raised at comparatively little expence from the surplus grain and vegetable substances, which would with a little industry greatly exceed the consumption of a family. Grass could also be found sufficient to pasture a cow, and a horse or mule. The first for milk for the children of a family; the latter for the use of the plantation. Green vegetables can also be raised with great advantage in all the West India Islands, such as *Cabbages*, *Savoys*, *Carrots*, *Tur-*

nips, Parsnips, Peas, and Calavances, &c. The introduction of a white population under proper encouragement would, in process of time, convert every island in the British West Indies into a complete garden, banish disease arising from the woods and morasses, and augment the produce of the soil to an extent highly favourable to the interests and the opulence of the parent state.

Hitherto few of the British Planters have paid attention to Horticulture, or indeed to any species of cultivation other than *Sugar, Rum, Cotton, and Coffee*, being the staple articles. Fruits of almost every kind, which are raised in the Southern latitudes, may be cultivated to great advantage in the West India Islands, namely Grapes of the finest flavour and quality, Plums, Peaches, Nectarines, and other stone fruit, in addition to Limes, Lemons, and Oranges in great abundance, as well as many other tropical fruits, all which might be cultivated by small settlers at little or no expence after the trees are once planted. The Grapes could be manufactured into Raisins for exportation, while the green fruits might be sold for the use of the inhabitants of the towns and the crews of ships resorting to the islands.

It is not easy to calculate in a climate and soil, capable of producing so great a variety of articles of necessity and luxury, to what an extent the aggregate value of each Colony might be carried, aided by a considerable white population once fairly established. By clearing the woods and cultivating the soil the climate would gradually improve and become more and more healthy, while the means of obtaining abundance of food would rapidly increase the population. But this is not all.

A considerable augmentation of the colonial militia would render unnecessary the expence of sending large bodies of troops from the parent state for the protection of the Colonies against insurrections among the Negroes in time of peace and for protection in time of war, or at least perhaps to one fourth part of the extent hitherto required after these settlements had acquired a certain degree of maturity. They would ultimately be defended by the subjects of His Majesty, born in the Islands and accustomed to the climate.

The mortality, so fatal to troops sent from the Parent State, would in a great measure cease to exist; while these valuable Colonies would be preserved as territories of the crown for ages yet to come. According to the system heretofore pursued, if it shall continue unaltered, little or no hopes can be entertained of the Colonies remaining forty years longer attached to the mother country. The coloured and black inhabitants must, in the nature of things, overwhelm a white population so inadequate from the great disparity of numbers to the means of defence or security.

At no period in the history of this nation has the necessity of the measure proposed been so self-evident; and it may also be added, that at no period has it been practicable on the part of Government to carry it into effect with so much ease and advantage to the nation as at present. It has been already seen in the first chapter of this work, notwithstanding the extensive war in which the nation has been so long engaged, which has drawn from the industry of the country a great number of the male population, that there is no want

of labourers, either in agriculture or handicraft employments, and that even under the circumstance of a great reduction of marriages occasioned by the war, every five years add about one million of souls to the general population of the united kingdom.

The great assistance which manufacturers derive from ingenious machinery, so indispensably necessary to enable this country to enter into competition with foreign states, joined to the insufficiency of food and labour for the support as well as the employment of a more dense population, clearly demonstrates the policy as well as the humanity of finding an asylum in His Majesty's transatlantic dominions for those who can neither be easily fed or comfortably supported by their labour in the parent state.

It has been already shewn, that a great resource is to be found in the North American Colonies; and it is now attempted to be demonstrated, that a still more beneficial employment is accessible in the West India Colonies, where slighter and less expensive houses, cheaper clothing, and a soil more abundantly prolific hold out considerable encouragement to those who may avail themselves of the option of a tropical climate.

The present above all other periods is most favourable for this species of emigration, whether directed to the Northern or the Southern countries attached to the British Crown.

The necessaries, required for the equipment of these emigrants, can be supplied not only from the numerous articles now in the stores of the Commissary General and the Barrack departments, but from the vast quantities which must be returned from the seats of war, which are now no longer wanted, and which must either perish or be sold at less than one twentieth part of their original value:—such as *Beds and Bedding, Blankets, Coverlids, Sheets, Rugs, Barrack-furniture, Camp-furniture, Cooking Utensils, Grates, Fire Irons, Tin Lanterns, Spades, Shovels, Pick-axes, Hammers, Axes, Chisels, Saws, Sledge-hammers, Anvils, Vices*, and all other utensils, *Iron bedsteads*, and a great variety of other articles, which might be placed in depots for the use of settlers, and to be distributed according to their respective wants, to which for the northern climates might be added second-hand great-coats and other wearing apparel.

In fact, from the extent of the supplies to the vast armies in the pay of Great Britain, which must be reduced on the establishment of Peace, there is scarcely an article, that an emigrant can require for domestic comfort, or for agricultural purposes, or even for the fisheries, which government may not furnish without any pressure upon the nation; since even if they were not conferred as a gift, but purchased if exposed to public sale, in order to ascertain their value, and sold afterwards to the emigrants, at the prices so ascertained, almost every necessary might be obtained at so low a price as to be within the ability of every class to supply their wants.

The labour of the British people, thus assisted and encouraged, would very soon be highly productive not only to themselves, but to the mother country, by the exportation of their produce and the importation of British manufactures. So that instead of living in idleness and poverty at home they would be placed in situations, holding out a certain

prospect of comfort and independence to themselves and families as the fruits of their industry. Stimulated by such prospects great exertions would in general be made; and self-interest, likely to be gratified, would generate industry where it did not before exist. The gift of a freehold landed property, as a reward for the toils endured and the hazards experienced in the service of their country by sea and land, would operate powerfully in encouraging industry; it would at the same time shew the attention of government to the brave men, who have sustained the hardships of a long and protracted war.

The boon thus given would cost nothing, since the lands, not being fit for the cultivation of the sugar cane, would otherwise remain unsaleable, or would produce little that could prove an object of the least consequence to the nation, while a tenfold return would be made by the increase of the produce of the soil, and the consequent augmentation of the trade with the parent state.

By adopting this policy, the population of the extended British Empire might in course of time produce by land and labour double, or in the Colonies treble what it does at present; hence the resources of the nation would be increased in every direction.

It has been thought necessary to state thus much by way of explanation, and with a view to prepare the mind of the reader for a more enlarged view and an ample discussion of this important subject.

The British West India Colonies appear never to have been viewed with that partial eye, which their importance deserves. It would seem, that, considering the empire at large as one great family, the landed interest in every quarter of the British Dominions should equally partake of the fostering hand of the legislature. The fluctuations in property which have taken place in all or most of the West India Islands,—the casualties to which they are exposed,—the great expences incurred, particularly in time of war, in transporting their produce to the mother country,—the high duties imposed on the produce of the soil,—the hazards to which the land-holders are liable by hurricanes and bad seasons producing deficient crops, and frequently bad markets have brought thousands of industrious individuals from a state of affluence to misery and want. The records of the Courts of Justice and the Register Offices in the different Islands, but particularly in Jamaica, exhibit a melancholy picture of the casualties to which the trans-atlantic landholder is exposed. Almost one half of the once valuable estates in not a few of the islands were not long since under execution in the hands of the sheriff, or the property transferred to the mortgagees in the parent state, by which the chief part of the formerly respectable inhabitants were compelled to abandon their ancient inheritances.

From the year 1807 to 1811 inclusive, a period of great distress in the West Indies, when the average price of sugar was below 37s. 6d. per cwt. exclusive of duty, the West India landholder did not merely cultivate his estate for the benefit of the British Government, but he also paid a contribution for being employed as bailiff on his own land,

to the extent of whatever sum the sugar sold for under 37s. 6d.; a situation altogether unprecedented in the annals of civilized society. In fact, the whole income, arising from the cultivation of his estate, was absorbed in the duty and charges.

In this deplorable situation of things the West India landholder having no income, his mortgagee in the United Kingdom, who had advanced the duties imposed by the supreme government, naturally increased the debt upon the estate. When from a series of misfortunes this debt became of sufficient magnitude, the British creditor obtained all his debtor had to give—He obtained *his whole estate*.

By such sacrifices, the imposts were paid and rendered productive to an extent which could not have been accomplished under other circumstances, or in any other state of society. The result has been, that in these unfortunate years the ruin of the original proprietors has been gradually completed. Estate after estate has passed into the hands of mortgagees and creditors absent from the islands, leaving large districts in which there is not a single proprietor of a sugar plantation resident!

The effect, produced by this train of misfortunes, has been highly injurious to the best interests of the Parent State in their connection with the valuable Colony of Jamaica. The depopulation of the Colony, by the degradation of the most useful and valuable part of the community, has been sacrificed to a temporary revenue, which ought to have fallen upon the consumer, but which was actually paid by the cultivator of the soil.

It requires no power of argument to demonstrate the policy of retaining well educated and enlightened individuals in their proper situations, especially in a country where personal influence and intelligence are indispensably necessary to repress disorders, and to give vigour and energy to the law; since great exertions of the human mind are most essential where the state of society is so unequally poised.

This reasoning applies more to Jamaica than to the other Islands, although all of them have been more or less affected by the oscillations and vicissitudes in the transfer of property, arising from circumstances, which do not apply to the landed interest in the Parent State.

However men may differ in opinion as to the advantages of originally establishing Colonies, no doubt can be entertained as to the policy of rendering those that have become productive as beneficial as possible to the proprietors and the parent state. They are both so identified, that whatever shall operate in producing prosperity to the one must be equally beneficial to the other. The Colonies have cost the parent state immense sums, expended in their protection in periods of war; and it is only by the uniform and uninterrupted prosperity of the cultivators of the soil that a remuneration is to be obtained.

In this view, it becomes an object of state policy to guard them against any contribution towards the payment of the duties on the commodities they produce, which are intended, as in the case of all other imported articles, should fall on the consumer alone. It is here to be observed, that from the year 1807 to the year 1812 inclusive, comprising five years and twenty weeks, of the whole duties on sugars paid to government the West

India land-holder contributed more than one-third part on an average, namely £6,691,508 1s. 11d. making an average of £1,115,251 6s. 11½d. a year, as will appear from the following Table founded on public documents; but it will likewise appear, that instead of one third the West India Proprietor actually paid nearly one half the duty in the years 1807, 1808 and 1811:—

Proportion of the Duty on Sugars paid by the Consumer and the Planter from 1807 to 1812 inclusive.

Years.	Weeks.	Gross average price of Sugars including Duty.		Gazette price of Sugars on the average of a year.		Duty paid.	Per Centage on the Gazette price of Sugar.	Proportion of the Duty paid by the Consumer in each year.		Proportion of the Duty paid by the Planter in each Year.		Aggregate Proportion of the Duty paid by the Planter in each Year.			Quantity of Sugars paying Duty in each Year.
								Per Cwt.	Per Centage.	Per Cwt.	Per Centage.				
		s.	d.	s.	d.	s.		s.	d.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	Cwt.
1807	52	61	1	34	1	27	78 $\frac{39}{409}$	11	1	32	$\frac{312}{409}$	2,108,958	6	8	2,650,000
1808	52	66	3½	39	3½	27	68 $\frac{676}{943}$	16	1½	41	$\frac{439}{943}$	1,445,625	0	0	2,700,000
1809	52	73	2¼	46	2¼	27	58 $\frac{828}{2219}$	23	2¼	50	$\frac{550}{2219}$	639,945	5	11¼	3,394,185
1810	52	79	1¼	49	1¼	30	61 $\frac{101}{2359}$	29	1¼	59	$\frac{719}{2359}$	161,055	13	9	3,771,060
1811	52	66	7¼	39	7¼	27	68 $\frac{124}{1903}$	16	7¼	41	$\frac{1877}{1903}$	1,888,155	16	1½	3,647,142
1812	20	70	1¼	43	1¼	27	62 $\frac{1198}{2071}$	20	1¼	46	$\frac{1434}{2071}$	447,767	19	5¼	1,306,557

Total estimated amount of the proportion of Duty paid by the Planter during the last } £6,691,508 1 11 Cwt. 17,468,944
5 years and 20 weeks

Average of 5 years and 20 weeks ending 16th May 1812 - - - £1,115,251 6 11½ Cwt. 2,911,490½

Nothing can more forcibly prove the hardship, to which the cultivators of the great staple commodity, sugar, have been subjected in those years when prices were reduced, than the result which this diagram discloses.

The select committee of the House of Commons, appointed to investigate and report on the state of the West India Colonies in 1807, express themselves in the following words:—

Scale of Duties recommended.

Gross price.	Government.	Planter.
s.	s.	s.
80 -	30 -	50 -
78 -	29 -	49 -
76 -	28 -	48 -
74 -	27 -	47 -
72 -	26 -	46 -
70 -	25 -	45 -
68 -	24 -	44 -
66 -	23 -	43 -
64 -	22 -	42 -
62 -	21 -	41 -
60 -	20 -	40 -

“ In investigating the causes of the depression of the market, from whence
 “ the whole of the Planter’s distress appears to originate, the first object that
 “ strikes your Committee is the extraordinary situation in which he is placed,
 “ which prevents him alone (in exception to every other similar case) from in-
 “ demnifying himself from the *increased duty* and other expences attending the
 “ cultivation by an increase of the price to the consumer ; for it appears that
 “ since the year 1799 the duty on Sugar has been raised from 20 to 27s.
 “ and contingently to 30s. per cwt. The expences of the estates are calculated
 “ to have in many articles risen 50 per cent, and in others about 100 per cent, and
 “ the price has fallen from 69s. to 33s. 6d. the average of the last eight months.
 “ As it is obvious from the above statement, that the Duty is heavier than the
 “ article can bear at its present price, it is suggested that it might be expedient
 “ for the relief of the home market to extend the principle which has been
 “ adopted in the contingent increase from 27 to 30s. So that the maximum of
 “ duty fixed on the gross price of 80s. affording 30s. of duty and 50 to the
 “ Planter, the duty should be thrown back on a similar scale in proportion to the
 “ depression of the market until the price arrives at 60s. gross, leaving 20s.
 “ (the original duty) to Government, and 40s. to the planter, or in other words,
 “ a reduction of 1s. duty on a reduction of 2s. gross price for the average then
 “ fixed for the new duty as far as 20s.”

This suggestion of the Committee was however not adopted by Parliament, nor a similar suggestion expressed in still stronger terms to the same effect by a subsequent Committee appointed in 1808. The result has been, that the West India landholder has sustained the heavy burthen already stated, notwithstanding that the same Committee reported “ that the depression of prices was not occasioned by any excess of sugar in the
 “ British Colonies, which had done little more than keep pace with the extension of the
 “ British consumption ; and that it was just and reasonable, that they should be placed
 “ in the same situation as that which they would have enjoyed had they been left to the
 “ exclusive possession of the market of the kingdom by the non-interference of the sugars
 “ of the captured Colonies.”

The same Committee in 1808 strongly recommended the permission of a barter trade, exchanging every species of colonial produce for lumber and provisions, in consequence of the then glutted markets at home ; but as this was merely a temporary expedient to relieve the Colonies in time of war, the policy of which may be very doubtful under a change of circumstances, it is unnecessary to enter into the very strong arguments then adduced in support of the measure.

Another means of relieving the Colonies, and giving encouragement to the cultivators of sugar, by sheltering them against the losses they sustain in consequence of being prohibited from refining sugar in the British Colonies by an existing law, which imposes a Duty of £8 8s. 0d. per cwt. on this species of manufacture, has been suggested by a select committee of the House of Commons, of which the following is an extract.

The Committee of the House of Commons, being called upon to investigate the policy of this prohibition, duly reported to the House of Commons on the 22d June 1808. "That the advantages, which the planter would derive from refining his sugar before he exported it, are these. First, the immense loss would be avoided, which now arises from drainage in the passage, amounting to nearly one-eighth part of the whole. This loss to the planter of sugar may be estimated at its shipment at the low rate of 25s. per cwt. not less on the importation than £600,000 sterling per annum. It is indeed alledged, that this loss may be avoided by claying, but it appears the process of claying is not applicable to all sugars, and from its increasing disuse it seems to be regarded as by no means beneficial. Another benefit would arise to the planter from the great increase of his distillery; for every cwt. of sugar refined would furnish materials for the distillation of nearly three gallons of rum, and this without any additional expence. A third benefit to be expected by the planter would be the reduction of his home freight. At present the ships on an average obtain barely one third of a freight out, and are thereby obliged to charge two thirds on their freight home. Should the refining take place to any extent there would be a large exportation of coals and utensils; besides, as the freight home is not paid on the sugar taken on board, but on what is landed, it follows, that the freight of that *eighth* of the sugar, which is lost on the passage must be charged on the remainder. Was this waste avoided, it is obvious that on this account only the freight home might be reduced one eighth without loss to the ship-owner, and this would be at the present value of freight a saving to the planter of about £300,000 on his whole importation. Lastly, a benefit of no small importance may arise to the colonies from the number of Europeans, who would be wanted in various capacities for the refinery, and by this means would obviate the alarming decrease of the white population, which the present distress of the colonies cannot fail to accelerate. To this may be added, that the refinery would furnish to a considerable number of negroes an employment superior to field labour, and thereby contribute to that gradation among them, upon which their improvement and well-being so much depend. To the shipping interest it does not appear, that any injury could possibly occur. Instead of 1 cwt. of raw sugar the freight home would be 56lb. refined, 22lb. Bastard, and three gallons of Rum, which are at least equivalent. With regard to the revenue, it is clear that if the duty laid on the refined sugar and bastard should equal the raw sugar which produced it, no loss would arise. In some other points of view, the alteration would prove beneficial to the revenue. The waste being avoided, a greater quantity would arrive, and arriving at no additional expence it might be afforded cheaper. The consumption thereby promoted, the duties must increase. The revenue would also gain in another way. It has been found impossible to prevent melasses in the refinery from getting illegally into distillation, by which the revenue is materially injured. No such consequences could result from melasses produced in the West Indies, as the article is not of sufficient value to pay the charges of importation. It has been observed, that the planter loses one eighth of his produce; one eighth of his capital may therefore be regarded as unproductive. Capital, under such circumstances, not only detracts from the income of the individual, but is so much loss of national stock, and in this light must be regarded the two sums before stated, making an aggregate loss to individuals and the nation of £900,000 per annum."

"It is next to be considered, what effect such alteration in the duty would have on the domestic refinery, for the encouragement of which it was obviously first imposed. In as far as the colonial refinery may be promoted by such alteration, there can be no doubt but the domestic refinery must decrease, and if this effect were extensive and immediate, the greatest injury could not fail to arise to those, who on the faith of existing laws embarked their capital in these establishments. Presuming that the House would not entertain a measure, which could have such an effect, without at the same time a consideration of compensation to individuals, who might be injured by it, your committee thought it incumbent on them to make inquiry, as to the amount of these capitals, and the nature of their investment."

"It was stated, that there were two years ago 364 refining pans employed in London alone, but that 70 of these are now out of employment. The number of pans in other parts of the United Kingdom are supposed to be 240; and it is presumed, that an equal proportion of these, viz. 46 are from the same cause out of em-

“ ployment. The total then would be four hundred and eighty-eight pans in employ, and one hundred and sixteen
 “ out of employ. The capital necessary for each pan is stated at £3,000, of which two thirds are allotted for build-
 “ ings, and one third for the utensils. To keep a pan at work a further capital of £6,000 in London, and a
 “ larger sum at the out-ports is requisite for the purchase of sugar, and to discharge the requisite expences. But
 “ this latter capital does not come into the present view, as it would not be engaged were the refinery to stop.
 “ Allowing therefore £3,000 for each pan, it would amount to £1,464,000 for those that are in employ, and
 “ £348,000 for those that are out of employ; but as the latter capital may not at any rate become again productive,
 “ it would be hardly reasonable to allow for it as if it were so at present, and perhaps half the value may be
 “ considered as only liable to depreciation. This deduction would leave the total of the buildings and utensils
 “ subject to a loss of £1,638,000. This however would not be total loss, as many of the buildings would be con-
 “ vertible to other purposes, and of all the scite and materials would retain their value. Neither would the
 “ utensils be entirely lost. An estimate of this nature cannot be expected to be exact, but it is perhaps not wide
 “ of the mark that the total eventual loss would be half their cost, or £819,000.

“ Your committee thought it right to present to the House the extreme case, in order to shew that even
 “ the extreme case *would not occasion a loss equal to what arises annually* in the present system.”

“ This extremity could however hardly occur. Your committee have already observed, that in a matter so
 “ new it is impossible to say what difficulties might arise entirely to obstruct the refinery in the West Indies. At
 “ any rate it is probable, that from want of capital there the progress would be very gradual, and that the colo-
 “ nial refinery would at last be confined to such sugars as are exposed to the greatest waste in the passage, and are
 “ least able to pay the freight in a raw state. Thus it may be supposed, that ultimately not above one half of the
 “ domestic refineries would be superseded by those of the West Indies, and therefore not above one-half of the
 “ above-mentioned injury would arise, and this would be rendered less by its being gradual and in a great part
 “ remote. So much however is certain, that in as far as the measure should produce any effect, that effect will
 “ be highly beneficial to the planter and the nation, and that the benefits arising from it will furnish ample funds
 “ for compensating any injury that it may produce. On the other hand, should the refinery not succeed in the
 “ West Indies, it cannot be imagined that from an unsuccessful speculation any serious injury could arise to the
 “ refineries in this country.”

Thus it would appear, that all difficulties might be easily removed, which have hitherto been opposed to a refinery of sugars in the colonies. The advantages likely to result from such a measure are so clearly explained in the report of the committee, that nothing remains to be added with regard to its policy and expediency. An indulgence however, so apparently reasonable, could only be extended to a certain proportion of sugar chiefly of an inferior quality; since a very considerable part of the annual produce is sold in the United Kingdom for the scale in a raw state, and constitutes the whole consumption of the lower orders of society, and also a large proportion of what is consumed by the middle and even the higher orders of society. In many instances it is even preferred to the refined at nearly the same price.

It appears from the public accounts, that the consumption of sugar in the United Kingdom has been rapidly increasing during the last twenty years. In the year 1792 it appears from the Custom House accounts, that the sugar retained for consumption in Great Britain and exported to Ireland amounted to 1,478,847 cwt. equal to 113,758 hogsheads of 13 cwt. each. The consumption for the year ending the 31st December 1807 had nearly reached 200,000 hogsheads, (exclusive of what was used in the distilleries,) while at the present period (1814) it cannot be estimated at less than 230,000 hogsheads. The

importation from all the British colonies, including St. Lucia and Tobago, may be estimated at this time at about 250,000 hogsheads, of 13 cwt. on an average.

The gross duties paid on the consumption appear, from accounts presented to Parliament, to amount to the following sums in the years 1810, 1811, and 1812:—

Duties paid in Great Britain	{ 5th January 1810	amounted to £3,373,995
	{ 5th January 1811	Idem 3,117,330
	{ 5th January 1812	Idem 3,339,218
Duties paid in Ireland.	{ 5th January 1810	Idem 598,298
	{ 5th January 1811	Idem 431,320
	{ 5th January 1812	Idem 631,158

The prices in 1813 have greatly advanced, in consequence of the quantity consumed in the distilleries in 1812-13, and the subsequent renewal of a commercial intercourse with the continent of Europe; but the pressure upon the West India landholders was so great during the seven preceding years, that it will require liberal prices for some years to come, in order to make up for their severe and heavy losses. When the duties on rum, coffee, cotton, and other colonial produce are added to those obtained for sugar, the importance of the West India Colonies, as a productive source of revenue, is too obvious to require further elucidation.

Next to the staple articles of sugar and rum, coffee has become an article of considerable importance, as has already appeared from its rapid increase in the island of Jamaica. In four years ending the 30th September 1791, the average exportation from that island amounted only to 1,603,666lbs. In 1804, it had increased to 22,000,000lbs., while during three years ending 30th September 1808, the average exportation exceeded 28,500,000lbs.

According to an estimate of the House of Assembly in Jamaica about £20,000,000 of capital have been invested in coffee settlements in that island, which ought to have yielded an annual revenue to the cultivators of £1,700,000; but the stagnation of trade and the reduced prices in the years 1809, 1810, 1811, and 1812, left little or nothing in return for capital and labour, on the contrary, where sales were made after paying insurance, freight, commission, dock dues, and the numerous other charges, the unfortunate planter was in several instances brought in debt, instead of receiving a net proceeds.

The calamity occasioned by this depression in the markets was truly deplorable. The proprietors of numerous estates were reduced to the greatest misery and distress. Their condition was not a gradual falling off,—a diminution of income to be met by rigid economy, retrenchments, and privations. It was a state which could not be conceived to exist by agriculturists in Europe. For a time the productions of the land became absolutely of no value, either to sell, barter, or pledge, whilst a heavy expence was incurred for food, clothing, and medical care of the negro-labourers, for public taxes, and parochial assessments; thus yielding nothing for the support of the proprietors and the

maintenance of their families, of whom the younger branches were in many instances residing in England for their education.

These distresses are feelingly expressed in an Address and Representation of the House of Assembly to the Prince Regent, dated the 12th December 1811, in the following words:—

“ For two years has this calamitous state of things been endured. The crops of 1809 and 1810 are in a state worse than useless; a third draws to a close, and no appearance of alleviation. The crop is gathering, but its exuberance excites no sensation of pleasure. The proprietor sickens at the additional labour of his people, while he is unable to give them the usual remuneration for their toil. In vain are these unfortunate men told to direct their industry to other pursuits: the lands on which their negroes are settled, and to which they are fondly attached, are in general unfit for any other staple. Even the desperate expedient of abandoning their lands, sacrificing two thirds of their capital, and disposing of the remaining third, consisting of negroes and moveable property, is not in their power. To remove such bodies of labourers from their homes and provision grounds would be pregnant with infinite danger to the country; but if offered for sale,—Who can buy them? The proprietors of old sugar plantations are sinking themselves under accumulated burthens; and no person of any capital thinks of embarking in new speculations in the colonies.”

These details shew the vicissitudes to which West India property is exposed, and how much the fostering hand of the parent state is necessary to remove as far as possible the causes, which produce these too frequent calamities. The fortunate change however which has delivered Europe from the afflicting scourge, which obstructed the general course of navigation and commerce to the continent of Europe, will hereafter greatly diminish the commercial distresses of the West India Colonies, and render them less liable to the casualties depicted in the Parliamentary Reports, and in the Address of the House of Assembly of Jamaica.

The vast importance of establishing and encouraging coffee settlements in all the British islands cannot be too strongly impressed on the minds of those assigned to exercise the powers of government; since it is chiefly through this medium that an inferior white population, so indispensably necessary for the security and the general improvement of the colonies, can be obtained.

The markets of Europe being now universally opened, a strong and well grounded hope may be entertained, that the blessings of peace will be enjoyed for a great length of time, bringing with it the power of introducing coffee into the consumption (relieved of the burthen of high freight, insurance, and other charges) at such moderate prices as to render its beverage accessible to all ranks of people, and yet yielding a fair return to the growers. This article under such circumstances can scarcely be too much encouraged, since it can be raised upon land, which can neither be converted into sugar plantations, nor into fields for the cultivation of maize, and other grains peculiar to tropical climates. It may be raised on the declivities of hills, and on lands which might remain for ever useless and unproductive.

Except in Jamaica, this valuable article has made but little progress in the other British islands, which upon the whole cannot be estimated at more than ‡ 33,371,192 pounds.

The Colonies captured from the Dutch may be estimated—in Demara, Surinam, Berbice, and Curaçoa	12,580,000
The French Islands of Martinique, Guadaloupe, and St. Lucia	7,150,000
The Danish Islands of St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John's	54,000
St. Domingo—average imported into Great Britain in three years, viz. 1809-10-11—19,364,666 lbs. suppose in all	40,000,000
Estimated produce of all the West India Colonies, excepting the Spanish, which is uncertain, but supposed inconsiderable	93,155,192 pounds.

The universal taste for coffee on the continent, which pervaded all ranks of the people, authorises a well-grounded expectation, that four times the quantity above stated may find consumers at the average price of nine-pence per pound, which would yield a fair profit to the cultivator, after paying freight, insurance, and other charges on the the reduced scale of a peace establishment. At this price it would be accessible to the great mass of the foreign consumers, even although the Sovereigns of the country should impose a moderate duty upon it. To the British consumers however it would not be accessible in retail under 17*d.* or 18*d.* a pound, since the present duty of seven-pence would amount to $77\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on an article now produced in the British Colonies to an extent exceeding six times the present consumption, although by a moderate duty the home consumption might exhaust the whole.

Previous to the year 1808, it had not been the policy of this country to consider coffee as an article cultivated in the British islands; and therefore a duty was imposed amounting to about 250 per cent. on the import price of the article. And the Excise restrictions were so severe as to discourage the consumption in every possible way. In 1809 the distresses of the coffee planters being brought under the review of the then minister of finance under circumstances which disclosed the vast and rapid increase of the growth of coffee in the British islands, but more particularly in Jamaica, he obtained the sanction of the Legislature to an alteration, which removed the restrictions and prohibitions as to roasting and grinding coffee in private houses, and to a reduction of the duty to seven-pence a pound of Customs and Excise. The result has been, that the revenue has increased 226 per cent. on an aggregate of five years.

When the duty was 2 <i>s.</i> 2 <i>d.</i> per pound, it appears from the finance accounts, that the net revenue received in the years ending the 5th January 1804-5-6-7-and 8, amounted in the aggregate to	£210,383
When the duty was afterwards reduced to 7 <i>d.</i> a pound, the same accounts shew that the net revenue received in the years ending the 5th January 1809-10-11-12 and 13 amounted to	£475,182

‡ See the Table annexed to this Chapter.

And yet notwithstanding this great augmentation of revenue, and increased consumption, the revenue on tea was not in any respect diminished.

But this increase afforded no relief; since in the years 1811 and 1812 the quantity of coffee from all quarters had so accumulated in the warehouses in London and the other ports of the kingdom as to be equal to nearly 200,000,000 of pounds, absorbing a capital of little less than ten millions sterling to the great distress of the cultivators, the consignees who made advances to their constituents, and to the merchants who imported on their own account.

Great sacrifices were of course made where an imperious necessity existed for making sales at any price, insomuch that coffee, which had been usually sold from 90s. to 100s. per cwt. was actually disposed of at the low price from 30s. to 40s. Considerable assistance was afforded during this period of distress, particularly in 1811, through the medium of shipments to Gibraltar and Malta, but in particular to the latter port. At length a partial opening of the ports in the North of Europe being followed by the means of a more direct and extended intercourse, at the close of the year 1813 the article attained nearly its full value.

During the period when coffee could be obtained at prices which placed at least four-pence per pound of the duty upon the cultivator, and three-pence only on the consumer, the consumption became rapid, particularly in the metropolis, where the retail prices were speedily reduced from 4s. 6d. to 1s. 8d. and 2s. a pound in 1811 for roasted coffee, and from 1s. 3d. to 1s. 6d. for the same article unroasted. This was effected by the efforts of a committee of gentlemen, who were interested in extending the home consumption for the benefit of their constituents, and who made great exertions with a view to this object. The attention at the time which was bestowed on the best means of extending the British consumption led to a conclusion, that in order to prevent all temptation to illicit trade on the return of peace, and with a view also to increase the revenue, the duty should not exceed fourpence per pound, or $44\frac{1}{6}$ per cent. on the import price of the raw material, including the freight and charges.

It must be admitted on all hands, that it would be desirable, if possible, to secure a consumption in the parent state for the full extent of the growth of coffee in the British islands, so as not only to render the nation independent of foreign sales, but more particularly to afford encouragement to an inferior class of white settlers (already strongly enforced) who might cultivate this article with the certainty of always obtaining a fair return for their labour. Previous to 1809, when the duty was 2s. 2d. per pound, the total consumption only amounted to 864,144 lbs. In three years after, when the duty was reduced to seven-pence, the average consumption amounted to 5,679,632 pounds.

There being a great diversity in the qualities, and of course in the actual value of coffee the same as in tea, it would appear both just and expedient, that instead of a fixed and positive impost on all coffee, an ad valorem duty should take place as a more just and

equitable principle of taxation. This would prove less inconvenient than may appear at first view, since it has been very generally the practice to dispose of coffee by public auction, through which medium, as at the East India sales, the duty can be easily ascertained. The consumption of the inferior qualities, exported to the continent, has been confined to the lower classes of the people; and the same will take place in the United Kingdom, if ever coffee becomes a general beverage.

An ad valorem duty would bring the article within the reach of all classes of the community, provided this duty shall not exceed 44 or 45 per cent. on the actual value ascertained by the sales; the higher orders would of course consume a finer article, to which an increased duty, according to the actual value, would attach. The augmented consumption, which may be expected from the adoption of this principle, (which has been long recognised in the sale of teas at the East India House) will certainly be realized to such an extent as would greatly improve the revenue of the crown on this article.

Those interested in the sale and consumption of tea may possibly feel alarmed at every attempt to increase the use of coffee in the United Kingdom; but when it is considered, that the progress must be slow in rendering coffee a general beverage in this Country, and that as the article of tea, even under the present high duty of 96 per cent. ad valorem, has gradually experienced an increased consumption, there can be no just ground to apprehend any diminution of the present very extensive consumption.

When the increased and increasing population of the country is considered, and when it is also taken into the account that the reduction of the duty on coffee, cultivated and imported at the diminished expence attached to a state of profound peace, will bring it within the reach of a pretty numerous class of people, who have not hitherto and are not likely to become consumers of tea, it is indeed a possible case, that after a length of time when coffee gets into general use among the inferior classes of the community, the consumption of tea may become stationary; but under the present circumstances of the country, or under any circumstances, there are no just grounds to apprehend a diminution.

But even supposing a diminution of the consumption of tea likely to take place, if it can be shewn, that a decrease to the extent of even seven millions of pounds can be conceded without affecting the pecuniary interest of the Honourable East India Company, and also without diminishing the public revenues, such a reduction must be considered a wise measure of state policy, if it shall give to the nation a new and additional revenue (not at present existing), arising from coffee the growth of the territories of the empire, cultivated by his Majesty's subjects, and paid for wholly in British manufactures.

The following statement is hazarded (not on light grounds) in order to shew, that the proposed concession may be made by the East India Company and Government with a positive advantage to both, from the duties on an increased consumption of coffee.

Assuming that the total consumption of tea in the United Kingdom amounts at present to 23 millions of pounds (though it is probably more) and that seven millions of the inferior teas should hereafter cease to be imported, and that the remaining 16 millions of a superior quality should be permitted to be sold at an advance of fivepence per pound, this advance would yield . . .	£333,333
Deduct the loss which would arise to the Company from withdrawing seven millions of pounds of the lowest priced teas from the sales, estimating the loss at sevenpence per pound	204,166
Balance of annual profit in favour of the Company	<u>£129,167</u>

If the duty on coffee shall be reduced to four-pence per pound, it will be attended with two very great advantages: Such a reduction would effectually prevent smuggling, which will unquestionably take place under the present duty of seven-pence, while this reduced price of coffee at the peace would speedily extend the consumption to 40,000,000 of pounds, which at a duty of four-pence will yield	£666,666
Add the additional revenue on 16 millions of pounds of the superior teas, in consequence of the advanced price of five-pence per pound proposed to be added by the East India Company, being 96 per cent. on £333,333 . . .	319,999
	<u>£986,665</u>
Deduct from this sum the loss which the public would sustain on seven millions of pounds of inferior teas, withdrawn from the consumption, at 2s. 6d. per pound	875,000
Balance in favour of the Public Revenue	<u>£111,665</u>

Thus it should seem, that there would be no ground for alarm on the part of the East India Company, while under such an arrangement the public revenue would be rendered secure. The inferior teas being withdrawn, which seldom enter into the consumption, without an admixture with the finer sorts, would enhance the value of the superior qualities beyond the proposed advance.

The universal taste for tea, and the fast hold it has obtained upon the consumers is proved by the gradual increase of its consumption, notwithstanding the enormous duties imposed since the Commutation Act in 1784, when the duty was reduced to 12½ per cent.* Before this reduction took place, and when the existing duty amounted to 56¼

* "The Commutation Tax, when it was originally proposed, experienced great opposition, and several pamphlets were published in order to shew the impolicy of the measure. Among other arguments it was

per cent. ad valorem, besides 1s. 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per gross pound, the quantity of tea sold at the India House only amounted to 5,500,000 weight, while at least 12,000,000 were supposed to be consumed in the kingdom.

The measures adopted by the East India Company of purchasing all the tea in the markets of Europe to the amount of above 17,000,000 of pounds, which cost upwards of two millions sterling, coupled with the great reduction of duties, put an immediate stop to illicit trade, insomuch that in the year 1787 the sales of tea at the East India House amounted to 16,692,427 pounds, yielding a revenue at 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of £336,095.

The pressure of the French Revolutionary War compelled the Finance Minister of the day to impose additional duties, until they were augmented from the original Commutation Tax of 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to the enormous impost of 96 per cent.; notwithstanding this excessive duty, joined to the other burthens occasioned by the war, the consumption of this article of luxury has gradually increased to the extent of 23,000,000 of pounds, producing a revenue of about *three millions sterling a year*.

Under these circumstances, it would not, in the present times, be politic to adopt any measure, which should tend to reduce these duties without finding such an equivalent as has been suggested. Nor is it necessary, since, even if the inferior teas are not withdrawn from the consumption, there is no reason to suppose that any defalcation of revenue on this article would arise from a more extended consumption of coffee with an increased and increasing population. The only effect (as already mentioned) would probably be this,—that the consumption, and consequently the revenue on tea would remain stationary.

It must however be confessed, that in every point of view the article of coffee is entitled to a preference. The colonial landholder has a just claim to solicit from the parent state every legislative regulation, which shall promote the growth of this valuable article of commerce, by promoting its consumption in the United Kingdom. It has been incontestibly proved, that coffee is not only a very wholesome beverage, but also that it possesses nutritious qualities to a considerable extent, which are not applicable to tea. It has been also considered by men eminent in the medical profession, as favourable to digestion and to the prevention of diseases. From its nutritious qualities it would, as a

“ urged, that the enormous consumption of a foreign article in no respect necessary or useful was impolitic, since
“ it encouraged the consumption of an article, which there is reason to believe was far from being favourable to
“ the health of the people;—that it also encouraged a commerce with a country but little disposed to take our
“ goods in return but required bullion, thereby diminishing our domestic wealth and circulation;—that it pro-
“ moted the sale of an article, which prevented the consumption of the wholesome beverage of the country,
“ from which a considerable portion of our revenue was derived; and that for the purpose of obtaining this per-
“ nicious article at an easy rate we imposed a tax, which tended to decrease the number of houses and the popu-
“ lation of the country.” Those predictions, however, have not been verified; the people are not more un-
healthy; the population has increased; and the revenue has been greatly augmented.

common beverage on the poor man's table, be similar to what prevails in almost every nation of the continent—prove a great acquisition.*

Whatever enriches the colonies augments the wealth of the mother country. In consuming their produce, we consume the productions of our own soil. By increasing this produce, by means of an extended consumption at home, we increase our shipping, we employ our maritime labourers, we enrich our merchants, and we greatly benefit our manufacturers and operative labourers by the employment which commerce generates, and by the consumption of fabricated articles sent to the colonies. The monopoly, both with respect to exports and imports, is confined to the parent state. A circumstance which greatly strengthens the claim of the trans-atlantic landholders and traders to every possible encouragement.

It becomes therefore an interested policy to extend by every means the productions of the soil in all the British Colonies. In the parent state, the productions of the land

* The following Extract of a Letter from a Gentleman of great integrity and veracity, addressed to the Author on the 24th September 1811, incontestibly establishes the nutritious qualities of coffee, and of the power it possesses of giving heat or warmth to the human body in the severest weather.—“ Sir, agreeably to your request I will put in writing such facts on the advantages in the use of coffee, which have come under my personal knowledge. In March, and in the early part of April 1806, in a passage from the West Indies to the northern part of America we were exposed to a series of gales of wind and squalls, accompanied by rain, hail, and sleet, which although not cold to the degree of frost had a severe effect on persons but eight or ten days from a warm latitude of 11° North. For eighteen successive days, in which from the short number of hands and the state of the vessel constant and severe exertion was required, without a dry thread or four hours uninterrupted sleep for the whole period,—short of provisions, and those of so bad a quality as only to be tasted to avoid starving. Under these circumstances, *the strength and spirits of the whole crew were preserved by strong hot coffee, of which and water we had an abundance served three times a day, and not limited as to quantity, and sometimes an additional quantity during the night.* As to the effect of coffee in severe cold I can only state, having passed the greater part of fourteen winters in the Province of Main, in the latitude of 44° North, where the thermometer has been 36° below Zero, and where a person who is much engaged in any active pursuit must frequently in the course of the winter be exposed to cold greater than 20° below Zero, that all prudent people abstain from the use of ardent spirits, and make great use of coffee; it being the general custom in travelling (which is almost always in open sledges) to have coffee as a beverage at dinner in lieu of any other liquid, and the effect I have always heard attributed to it, and which it certainly had on myself, was to produce a general glow over the whole surface of the body which lasts for a considerable time, whilst spirituous liquors under the same temperature only produces a sensation of heat in the mouth, throat, and stomach, which by destroying the equilibrium of the system renders the effect of the cold much more sensible on the extremities. That this is the effect of spirituous liquors too many fatal instances may be adduced; and although perhaps needless, I mention one in which I was concerned and a witness. Twenty-five persons volunteered their services to cut a vessel out of the ice in an exceedingly severe winter night. Nine only were able to persevere in the attempt, and on inquiry it appeared that none of these had tasted spirits,—all the rest had in a greater or less degree made use of them, and had there not been an inhabited building near where they were employed, several must have perished. Those who abstained took a breakfast of strong hot coffee, and with that meal only completed a severe exertion of twenty-four hours, the whole time exposed to a degree of cold much below Zero.”

are wholly consumed by the people. In the West India colonies it is far different. The surplus productions constitute fully $\frac{2}{3}$ parts in point of value of the whole cultivation. This surplus is under the control of the parent country. It must center in the United Kingdom every year, unless permission is granted to dispose of a part on the spot to foreigners or to British colonists in return for lumber and provisions.

From no country in the world is there so large a proportion of the produce of the soil exported as from the British West India Colonies. This proportion arises from the white population being less numerous than in the foreign colonies, thereby limiting the consumption of food chiefly to the negro labourers and the people of colour, who, with the exception of salt fish and a small quantity of Irish provisions, are fed almost exclusively on plantains, yams, and other vegetable food raised at no great expence, which are better liked, and which have been found more wholesome and nourishing than the flour of wheat or Indian corn.

The West India proprietor, who is merely a cultivator of the soil without any share of the profits attached to the transportation of his produce to a market, stands in a different situation from the British landholder, inasmuch as the species of produce which he cultivates affords employment to a numerous class of maritime labourers, merchants, and others, who all derive a considerable profit even at periods when the cultivator of the trans-atlantic soil receives no rent, and sometimes experiences, with some few exceptions, a serious loss.

The British farmer or cultivator of the soil has for a series of years been receiving progressively even an increased price for every article produced, which he is enabled to place in the possession of the consumer at a comparatively small expence. He is liable to no losses from hurricanes, or even from bad seasons. To him a short crop is a never failing benefit to a great extent, in consequence of increased prices always greatly exceeding the compensation for any deficiency which may occur.

These advantages greatly benefit the British landholder by affording the means of obtaining an advance in his rent, not seldom from 50 to 100 per cent. These contingencies are not however complained of. They are due both to the landlord and tenant in the natural progress of things; and will continue to be experienced while the demand for British agricultural produce continues to exceed the supply. The landlord and tenant uniformly prosper with the augmentation and general diffusion of created property, arising from the labour of the people in manufactures and commerce, invigorated by skill and capital.

It has been already shewn, that the situation of the Colonial land-holder is widely different. He must transport his produce to a distance of 4000 miles. He can send it with a few trifling exceptions only to the market of the parent state, where during war the produce of foreign colonies has entered into competition. The expence of transportation and other heavy charges, before it can reach the actual consumer, have on many

occasions produced little or no return to the planter; yet to the ship-owners and all the different classes who promote its transit, and also to the revenue the pecuniary benefits are in no respect diminished. The following statement will explain the extent of these benefits in one year's importation limited to sugar alone, taken at the low computation of 2,800,000 cwt. although the average quantity imported in three years ending the 5th January 1812 amounted to 2,825,160 cwt.

1. The Ship-owners received for freight on 2,800,000 cwt.	at 9s. 6d. per cwt.	£1,330,000	0	0
2. The Ship-masters' primage on each hhd. of 14 cwt. at 6d.		5,000	0	0
3. The Revenue Officers, Labourers, &c.	10s. 6d. per hhd.	105,000	0	0
4. The Dock Dues, &c. for Warehouse Rent, and other Charges	13s. 6d. per hhd.	135,000	0	0
5. The Underwriters' Premium of Insurance	35s. per hhd.	350,000	0	0
6. The Brokers' Commission	4s. 8d. per hhd.	46,666	13	4
7. The Consignees' Commission, &c.	23s. 4d. per hhd.	233,333	6	8
Total Charges of conveying the Produce to the Consumers		£2,205,000	0	0
Duty to the Crown on 2,800,000 cwt. at 27s. per cwt.		3,780,000	0	0
Aggregate Expence in bringing the Article to the Consumer		£5,985,000	0	0

The medium price of sugars, including the duty, during the years ending 5th January 1810-11-12, according to the Gazette prices, was 71s. 6d. per cwt. yielding on 2,800,000 cwt. } £10,010,000

Of this sum the individuals residing in the parent state receive	£2,205,000
The Consumer paid towards the Revenue	£2,946,673 10 3
And the Cultivator, in consequence of the Sugars selling under a saving price, as ascertained by the Committee of the House of Commons, paid towards this revenue in each of the three years*	833,326 9 9
	3,780,000
	£5,985,000
Balance received by the West India Landholder	4,025,000
	£10,010,000

Had the duties been thrown back, in the manner proposed to the House of Commons by the two several committees, to whom the distresses of the West India planters were referred in 1807 and 1808, this heavy loss would not have been incurred. It has been already shewn in page 325, that the average loss for five years and twenty weeks, ending 16th May, 1812, amounted to £1,115,251 6s. 11½d. Had this large sum, amounting in the

* On an average of the three preceding years ending the 5th January 1807, 1808, and 1809, the proportion of the revenue paid by the cultivator of the soil, which did not fall on the consumer, amounted on an average to £1,398,176 4s. 2d.

whole to £6,691,508 1s. 11d. been taken from the West India proprietors at a period when the produce of the soil yielded them a profit beyond the mere interest of their capital employed, it would have been a sacrifice which the parent state deserved, considering the expence incurred in their protection from capture during the long and protracted war; but when it is taken from them at a time when their estates yielded nothing to themselves, but on the contrary reduced numbers once affluent to a state of poverty, there can be no question as to the impolicy of the measure, even as it regarded the immediate interest of the parent state; since every fiscal arrangement, which in its operation shall disorganize productive industry, by which that industry is diminished, cannot fail to produce mischiefs of a magnitude proportioned to the extent to which such regulations of finance may be carried.

It will be seen by the following Table, founded on the documents contained in the finance accounts presented yearly to Parliament, that the produce exported from the British West India Colonies in the course of five years, namely the years ending the 5th January 1809-10-11-12-and 13, yielded a net revenue to the Exchequer, after deducting the expences of collection, amounting to £32,928,216.

Amount of net Duties of Customs and Excise on the following articles imported from the West India Colonies into Great Britain and Ireland, in the Years ended the 5th January, 1809, 1810, 1811, 1812, and 1813.

	Year ended 5th January 1809		Year ended 5th January 1810		Year ended 5th January 1811		Year ended 5th January 1812		Year ended 5th January 1813		TOTAL.
	Great Britain	Ireland	Great Britain	Ireland	Great Britain	Ireland	Great Britain	Ireland	Great Britain	Ireland	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1. Sugar . . .	3,818,315	497,241	3,246,586	505,995	3,014,074	348,741	2,868,232	467,949	3,580,223	522,227	18,869,583
2. Rum . . .	1,897,136	162,266	1,897,514	548,068	2,115,282	173,311	1,620,454	77,378	1,627,269	149,818	10,269,096
3. Melasses . .	698	626	3,074	238	998	97	2,270	83	7,354	120	15,558
4. Coffee and Cocoa	239,792	7,150	178,911	10,966	168,140	6,825	206,193	15,458	239,124	14,759	1,087,318
5. Cotton . . .	231,208	11,950	526,720	26,234	592,480	27,208	466,635	30,466	426,971	17,849	2,357,750
6. Ginger . . .	3,650	584	3,472	311	2,235	428	3,808	1,123	2,405	780	18,796
7. Pimento . .	6,217	.	8,489	576	7,431	423	9,594	1,078	4,734	778	39,340
8. Tamarinds . .	955	.	1,439	.	1,365	.	1,633	.	1,482	.	6,774
9. Castor Oil . .	479	.	1,407	.	2,572	.	2,601	.	5,194	.	12,253
10. Fustic . . .	2,045	.	4,146	.	5,275	.	7,197	.	5,271	.	23,934
11. Logwood . .	2,434	.	2,404	.	3,387	.	4,792	.	5,146	.	18,162
12. Mahogany . .	21,391	1,085	24,044	1,638	50,503	2,212	51,772	2,281	50,761	3,965	209,652
£ †	6,224,300	680,902	5,898,206	1,094,026	5,963,742	559,245	5,245,181	595,816	5,955,954	710,296	32,928,216

† Note.—These duties are exclusive of sundry small articles, as arrow-root, sweetmeats, &c. &c., not amounting to 1,000*l.* each, and not particularly specified in the Finance Accounts.

While it is here to be observed that these are the net duties conveyed to the Exchequer, and not the gross sum* paid by the importer, it is scarcely possible to produce stronger

* The revenue produced from the article of sugar consumed in Great Britain, on an average of

3 years ending 5th January 1774	was	£ 468,987
3 years ending 5th January 1783	.	954,364
3 years ending 5th January 1805	.	2,422,699
3 years ending 5th January 1813	.	3,580,223

X X 2

evidence of the importation of these colonies into the parent state, than what is exhibited in the above diagram.

But these are not the only duties received by the crown from the British colonies. Imposts on wine imported, and various other duties on articles exported to the British colonies and the United States of America are collected under the authority of parliament, and regularly remitted to the Receiver General of His Majesty's customs in London. The amount varies almost every year, according to the increase or diminution of articles; it may be taken on an average for all the colonies at about £40,000 a year. To this may be added, £58,000, being the net average amount of the $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. duties levied in kind in six of the Leeward Islands.

The diagram, now brought under the review of the reader, exhibits 12 different articles of commerce, the produce of the British colonies, all of which yield a revenue to the crown; several smaller articles, however, are omitted, which might be cultivated to great advantage, by an industrious white population.

Considering the progressive and even rapid increase of the population of the United Kingdom, it is fair to presume that the consumption of all these articles must be augmented, with a consequent increase of the revenue.

It is impossible, too strongly to enforce the policy and necessity of a white population, in order to extend the cultivation in all the colonies to the utmost extent of the physical powers they possess. By no other means can the parent state be relieved of the vast expence incurred in their civil and military establishments, and the naval force employed in their protection during war, nor the West India proprietors secured by any effectual protection of the vast capitals they have embarked in West India agriculture.

Taking a general view of the whole advantages, which the United Kingdom is presumed to derive yearly from her Transatlantic Possessions in the West Indies (exclusive of the captured colonies), it will be seen that they are not confined merely to revenue; but attach upon all articles imported and exported, where numerous individuals of all classes, in the parent state, acquire no inconsiderable portion of their subsistence in the different operations necessary to bring West India produce into the hands of the consumer, and in fabricating the various articles exported to the colonies. The advantages thus derived by the parent state may be estimated as follows:—

1. {	Revenue to the crown on sugar, rum, coffee, and other articles, detailed in the preceding table, taken on an average of 5 years ending the 5th January 1813, paid net into the Exchequer	£6,585,643
	Convoy duty and other duties on goods imported	120,000
2.	Landing expences at the custom-house and shipping expences	140,000
3.	Ship-owners, ship-masters, seamen, ship-builders and for repairs, ship-chandlers, and others furnishing of stores of every kind remunerated by the freight out and home	3,450,000
4.	Dock and port dues and warehouse rent in London and the out-ports	230,000
5.	Underwriters and insurance brokers, premiums on outward and homeward cargoes and shipping	1,200,000
6.	Merchants, and consignees, and brokers, &c., for commissions on outward and homeward cargoes	1,140,000
7.	British and Irish manufacturers, and others engaged in furnishing every species of merchandise, including flour, grain, and salted provisions, fish, coals, staves, &c. &c., 1812, exported from the United Kingdom	5,979,940
		Carried over <u>£18,845,583</u>

	Brought forward	£18,845,583
8. Money centering in the United Kingdom, arising from sums lent on mortgages, and for interest	}	1,560,000
on balances in accounts current, estimated at 25 millions in the whole		£20,405,583
Deduct for losses presumed to arise from insuring West India adventures		£ 700,000
Deduct for the tear and wear of ships employed, estimated at 600		1,500,000
Deduct for the raw materials used in manufactures and all other articles	}	1,600,000
exported		3,800,000
Estimated total of the advantages derived annually, by the United Kingdom, in revenue	}	£16,605,583
and for labour, risk, and interest of money, arising from the trade and intercourse		
with the British colonies		
Total revenue		£6,705,643
Interest of money		1,560,000
Labour of the people and rents		8,339,940
		£16,605,583

The imports from, and exports to, the West India Islands may be fairly estimated at this time, when taken at their real value, as equal to somewhat more than $\frac{1}{4}$ of the aggregate commerce of the United Kingdom.

It appears from the annexed Table, No. 9, that the value of exports from the British colonies	}	£10,387,144
to Great Britain and Ireland, in 1812 was		
And to all other parts		800,716
Total		£11,187,860

It appears also from the same Table, that the imports from Great Britain and Ireland amounted to	£5,979,940
And from all other parts	1,630,796
Total	£7,610,736

The shipping, employed in the trade to and from the British colonies, may be estimated at about 600 ships, averaging 300 tons, in the whole 180,000 tons, employing 16,000 seamen. There must, in the course of things, be a variation every year; but in discussions of this nature, approximating facts may be considered as all that are necessary, since they lead to the same conclusions, and are equally available in elucidation and argument.

These advantages will be increased or diminished in proportion to the prosperity or adversity of such valuable colonies. Their prosperity can only be maintained permanently by the fostering hand of the British Legislature. At the present period, a train of events has produced an advance even beyond expectation in the value of colonial produce, which may be considered as merely adventitious; producing, indeed, a temporary prosperity, which must continue a considerable length of time before the severe wounds, inflicted by a series of years of adversity, can place the colonies in a situation to support the immense expences of their establishments, and to bear them up under a fluctuation of prices.

Until the duties are thrown back, so as to meet these exigencies, the planters can never feel themselves secure against the payment, as heretofore, of a considerable proportion of such duties. It is the monopoly that generates this fatal contingency; and it is the legislature alone that can take out the sting. An oscillation of prosperity and adversity always tends to obstruct the progress of improvement in all the branches of productive industry. The adversity, here alluded to, is not that which may arise from hurricanes and other calamities, against which there is no remedy:—It is that which proceeds from legislative regulations, subjecting the planter, under a certain contingency, to the payment of a proportion of the import duty, which is intended wholly to fall on the consumer.

Having thus attempted to explain the advantages which the parent state derives from the Colonies, and the additional benefits which may be expected from a more extended cultivation, through the medium of an industrious white population properly encouraged; having also explained the peculiar and prominent pressures, which have checked their prosperity, and produced a retrograde movement towards the opposite extreme; it now remains to take a short review of the particular situation and progress of each Colony, from the period when they were first peopled by the subjects of the parent state.

JAMAICA.

This island from its extent and magnitude holds the first rank among the British possessions in the Antilles. It was discovered by Christopher Columbus in his second voyage to the new World in 1494,—when he learnt its name (Jamaica), which it ever after retained.

It was first colonised by the Spaniards in 1509; and continued in the possession of that government until the year 1655, when it was conquered by the English during the usurpation of Cromwell. Although the Spaniards had been in possession of this island a century and a half at the period of its conquest, not one hundredth part of the cultivated land had been turned to any account. It remained in a state of nature.

After the capture of Jamaica the English settlers were under military jurisdiction until the restoration of Charles II. The first settlers as well as the military experienced great difficulties and privations. On the 6th May 1658, the Spaniards attempted to recapture the island; but they were repulsed by d'Oyley, the English commander, and forced back to Cuba, after the loss of half their force, together with the whole of their ordnance, ammunition, and stores. No attempt was made afterwards by the Spaniards to re-possess this Colony.

At the death of Cromwell, not a few of his principal adherents found an asylum in this island, where they were suffered to remain without molestation by the government of Charles II., who published a proclamation, declaring that all the children of natural-

born subjects to be born in Jamaica shall be free Denizens of England, and that all free persons shall have liberty without interruption to transport themselves and families to Jamaica, and any of their goods (Corn and Bullion excepted) from any of His Majesty's dominions.

By the Treaty of Madrid, which took place in the month of June 1670, it is declared, "*that the King of Great Britain, his heirs, and successors, shall hold and possess for ever with full right of sovereign dominion, property, and possession all lands, countries, colonies, and dominions whatever situated in the West Indies, or any part of America, which the King of Great Britain or his subjects do at this present time hold and possess, so that in regard thereof, or upon any colour or pretence whatever nothing may or ought to be urged, or any question or controversy moved, concerning the same hereafter.*"

Previous to this treaty the Spaniards, as the first discoverers of America, had made war on every other nation, who had attempted to establish settlements in the new world, exercising the greatest cruelties. A detail of these cruelties would in many instances shock the feelings of humanity.

In the year 1678 a new system of legislation was adopted by the English government for Jamaica, founded on the Irish Constitution and Poyning's Act. A revenue to the crown of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the gross produce of the island had been granted by the Legislature of Barbadoes in 1663, and the same boon was required from Jamaica; but the people resisted the demand, and hence appears the origin of the measures by which they were to be deprived of their constitutional franchises, as a punishment for their resistance; these measures however did not produce the desired effect.

The new Constitution was rejected, and ultimately abandoned by the parent state, without obtaining the impost which had been demanded, and the old privileges of the assembly were restored, and that of framing such laws for their internal government as the exigencies of the country required; yet the sovereigns, not forgetting the persevering obstinacy of the legislature, uniformly refused to confirm them, which placed the affairs of Jamaica in a very unsettled state for 50 years, and greatly obstructed its progress towards improvement.

The unhappy contest continued from the reign of Charles the Second to George the Second, when in 1726 matters were compromised by an agreement on the part of the Assembly to settle on the Crown a perpetual revenue of £8000 a year, on condition. 1. *That the quit-rents, then estimated at £1,460 per annum, should form a part of the sum.* 2. *That the body of their laws should receive the royal assent, and* 3. *That all such laws and statutes of England, as had been at any time esteemed, introduced, used, accepted, or received, as laws of the island, should be, and continue laws of Jamaica for ever.* This compromise matured the political constitution of Jamaica.

The situation of the island is well known. Its centre is about $18^{\circ} 12'$ North latitude, and in longitude $76^{\circ} 45'$ West of London. The climate varies little during the whole year, and is from its southern latitude extremely hot, but the heat is tempered by sea-breezes. In its general appearance the country is very different from most parts of Europe, while the North and South side of the islands vary prodigiously from each other. A chain of mountains extends from East to West. The country from the shore rises into hills, which are generally separated from each other by vallies and inequalities, exhibiting a romantic appearance. The summits of many of these hills are clothed with groves of Pimento, a tree whose fragrance is no less singular than its extreme beauty. This spice is produced in Jamaica alone. It is unknown in the other British Colonies.

The variety of climate, which the elevated regions of Jamaica and all or most of the Islands in the West Indies afford, is in a high degree conducive to health. The thermometer varies from 80° to 65° and even to 55° degrees. In a very elevated situation called Cold Spring, it has been known to be as low as 44° . It is owing to these inequalities of surface that Jamaica in many parts is extremely fertile, yet the quantity of very rich and productive land in proportion to the whole is comparatively small, so that a considerable part of what is cultivated requires manure to make it yield a liberal return.

The island is 150 miles in length, and on a medium about 40 miles in breadth. Supposing it therefore a level country, it would give 3,840,000 acres; but according to the latest survey, made by Mr. Robertson, the total number of acres is ascertained to be 2,724,262 acres, of which there appears to be actually cultivated only 809,450, as inserted in the Table annexed, although Mr. Edwards in his valuable history of Jamaica states, that by a return of the clerk of the patents 1,907,589 acres were taken up by grants from the crown.

	Acres.
Sugar Plantations are estimated to occupy	639,000
Breeding Farms, denominated Pens	280,000
Coffee, Cotton, Ginger, Pimento, and other lesser productions	181,000
Total	1,100,000 Acres.

In estimating the cultivated land, it is presumed Mr. Robertson does not include the Pens, or perhaps the Woodland attached to every sugar plantation, which is an indispensable appendage.

Although a great part of Jamaica is considered as incapable of improvement by the efforts of its present Inhabitants, yet the people accustomed to the mountains of Switzerland would render much of it productive; since the high grounds through the powerful influence of violent heat and unceasing moisture are generally covered with timber of astonishing magnitude and solidity. Of this description are the *Lignum-vitæ*, *Logwood*, *Iron Wood*, and *Bully-Trees*:—Of the softer kinds for boards and shingles there are an

almost endless diversity, besides many kinds adapted to cabinet work of Europe of beautiful variety, among these may be ranked the *Bread-nut*, the *Wild Lemon*, and the *Mahogany*.

The Country is also well watered. Above a hundred rivers have been enumerated throughout its extent. None of them however are sufficiently deep for navigation by marine vessels. In St. Elizabeth, the black river, which flows for the most part through a flat country, is the deepest and the least rapid, and is navigable by flat bottomed boats and canoes for about 30 miles. Springs are extremely numerous. They are found even in the highest mountains. Some are of a medicinal nature, and are said to be efficacious in curing diseases peculiar to the climate. The most celebrated of them is in the Eastern parish of St. Thomas, and its remarkable qualities have given existence to a village named Bath. The water flows out of a rocky mountain about a mile distant; and is so hot that Fahrenheit's Thermometer, being emerged in a glass of this water, immediately rose to 123°. It is of a sulphureous nature, and has been found efficacious in diseases peculiar to the climate. Many parts of the island exhibit the appearance of metals; but the island is too thinly inhabited, and the labourers too much occupied to admit of exploring the hidden treasures in the bowels of the earth.

The grain cultivated in Jamaica is principally *Maize* or *Indian Corn*, which generally produces two crops, and sometimes three in a year. It yields, according to the soil, from 15 to 40 bushels an acre. Guinea corn is planted in September, and gathered in January, and produces 30 to 60 bushels an acre. Various kinds of calavances and rice are also cultivated, but not in great quantities.

The island abounds in excellent grass for cattle and horses, both native and foreign. A species of grass called *Scots' grass*, which though generally considered as an exotic, is supposed to grow spontaneously in most of the swamps and morasses of the West Indies. The joints of this plant are long and juicy. It vegetates very rapidly, and rises to the height of 5 or 6 feet. Five horses may be fed for a year from an acre of this vegetable, allowing to each every day 56 pounds of grass.

Guinea grass abounds in the Island, and is considered next in importance to the sugar cane, as this valuable herbage is the chief support of the Pens or breeding farms throughout the whole island. It was introduced accidentally about 70 years ago; the seeds having been brought from the coast of Guinea to feed Birds brought as presents. Fortunately the birds died, and the remainder of the stock being carelessly thrown into a fence grew and flourished. The eagerness manifested by the cattle to eat this grass suggested the benefits that might result from its being propagated; which have been fully verified in every part of the West Indies. A vast advantage attached to this grass is, that it thrives in some of the most rocky parts of the island, and thus renders lands productive, which had been considered as of no value. A numerous white population would discover these apparently useless lands to be capable of producing many other vegetable substances of equal value.

The edible roots, as pease, beans, &c. which are common to Europe, are cultivated in great perfection in the mountains. Several of indigenous growth, particularly the *Choco*, *Ochra*, *Lima Bean*, and *Indian Kale* are more agreeable food than any of the esculent roots of Europe. The other native productions of this soil are *Plantains*, *Bananas*, *Yams of various kinds*, *Calahue* (a kind of Spinage) *Edoes*, *Cassavi*, and *sweet Potatoes*. An unripe roasted plantain is an excellent substitute for bread, and is without exception preferred to it by the negroes and most of the native whites.

The island produces fruits, which are most excellent of their kind, insomuch that it may be affirmed with truth, that no country in the world affords the luxuries which constitute a desert in greater variety, namely, the *Pine-apple*, *Mango*, *Guava*, *Papan*, *Cashew-Apple*, *Sweet-Sop* of two kinds, *Cocoa-nut*, *Custard-apple*, *Grenadilla*, *Star-apple*, *Hog-plumb* and its varieties, *Avocado-pear*, *Neshbury*, *Pindal-nut*, *Mammea*, *Mammee Sapola*, *Prickly-pear*, *Spanish-gooseberry*, *Oranges-Seville and China*, the *Lime*, *Lemon*, *Vine*, *Fig*, *Melon*, *Pomegranate*, and the *Shadduck* in all its varieties.

The genuine Cinnamon and Mango were introduced into the island in 1782 by the late Lord Rodney, who found some plants of both in a French prize from the isle of Bourbon, which he had captured. The Mango is now as common as the Orange-tree, and the Cinnamon may be also said to be naturalized to the soil.

Jamaica is divided into three Counties... *Middlesex*, *Surrey*, and *Cornwall*.

Middlesex consists of 8 Parishes, 13 Villages, and 1 Town, St. Jago-de-la-Vega, or Spanish Town.

Surrey - - Idem 7 Idem . 8 - Idem, and 2 Towns, viz. Kingston, and Port Royal.

Cornwall - - Idem 5 Idem - 6 - Idem, and 3 Towns, viz. Montego Bay, Falmouth and Savannah-la-Mar.

20	27	6
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Each parish is under the government of a chief magistrate or *Custos Rotulorum* and a bench of justices, who hold Sessions of the Peace every month and courts of Common Pleas for trying actions to the extent of £20. Debts not exceeding 40 shillings are determined by a single justice. In the 20 parishes there are 28 churches and chapels, each parish having a rector and other church officers. The vestries consist of the *Custos*, two magistrates, ten vestry-men, and the rector. The vestrymen are elected annually by the freeholders. They have the power of assessing and appropriating local taxes. They allot labourers for repairing the highways, and appoint way-wardens. They nominate persons called collecting constables for the collection of public and parochial taxes; and moreover they regulate in general the police of their respective districts.

The supreme court for the whole island is held at Spanish Town, the seat of government, where his majesty's representative resides, and where the legislature meet.

The governor is by his office chancellor, and solely presides in that judicial department. He is likewise the sole ordinary for the probate of wills, and granting letters of administration.

The legislature consists of a captain-general or commander in chief, of a council nominated by the crown composed of 12 gentlemen, and a house of assembly consisting of 43 members, who are elected by the freeholders.

The revenue of Jamaica is of two kinds—*perpetual* and *annual*; of the first the quit-rents form a part, and heretofore amounted to £12,000 per annum. Out of this fund the governor receives £2,500 per annum, and the like sum by a special act of the legislature, who allot £40,000 for additional pay to his Majesty's forces stationed for the time being in the island. Every commissioned officer receives 20s. a week, and privates 5s. besides an allowance to their wives and children.

The funds necessary for these and other local purposes are raised by taxes on the property of the inhabitants and by colonial duties on articles imported.

The Table annexed, No. 9, exhibits a general statistical view of the power and resources of the colony; its population, lands cultivated and uncultivated, value of the produce raised annually, exports and imports, colonial shipping, circulating specie, public and private property, and the estimated value of the whole of this important colony, to which the reader is particularly referred.

BARBADOES.

This Island was first visited by the English in the year 1605. The native Charaibes for reasons unknown had previously abandoned it. The visit was accidental; the crew of a ship called the *Olive Blossom*, owned by Sir Oliver Leigh, bound from London to Surinam, landed and took possession of the country by erecting a cross, inscribing upon it, *James King of England and this Island*. No settlement however took place until the year 1624, when Mr. William Courteen, a merchant of London of an enterprising mind, sent 30 settlers to the island in the ship *William* and John captain Powell, and appointed Mr. William Dean governor of the new Colony. Their first act was to lay the foundation of a town, which in honor of the king was called *James Town*.

The Earl of Carlisle and the Earl of Marlborough had both obtained a grant of this island by a royal patent; but after various controversies the dispute was compromised by the Earl of Carlisle agreeing to pay £900 a year to the Earl of Marlborough and his heirs for ever, upon which, on the 2d of June 1627, the Earl of Carlisle's patent passed the great seal, by which he became the sole proprietor.

During this contest Mr. Courteen, who alone had the merit of annexing this settlement to the English crown, appears to have been treated with much neglect, if not ingratitude. He was abandoned by the Earl of Marlborough after he had received his

compensation, and Lord Carlisle became his implacable enemy. The Earl of Pembroke, however, who was his friend, obtained a revocation of Carlisle's patent, under grant to himself in trust for Courteen.

This was effected while the Earl of Carlisle was absent from the kingdom. On his return, he complained of the injustice which he had experienced; upon which the vacillating and irresolute monarch by a second patent reinstated Lord Carlisle, who entered into a contract with a society of merchants in London for the sale of 10,000 acres of land. They appointed Mr. Charles Woolforston to manage their concerns, who set sail for the island accompanied by 64 persons, each of whom was empowered to take up 100 acres. They landed on the 5th of July 1628, and found Mr. Courteen's settlement in a promising state: Woolforston, however, contested his right: and Sir William Tufton arriving the following year as governor, under the appointment of the Earl of Carlisle, forced the original settlers sent out by Courteen to submit, and his interest in the island ceased from that period.

In 1631 Captain Henry Hawley succeeded Sir William Tufton as governor, who, resenting this intrusion, persuaded some of the planters to sign a petition, complaining of Hawley's conduct. Hawley, in the character of governor, considered it as a mutinous action on the part of his predecessor, Tufton, for which he was tried by a Court-Martial, and was actually shot! Hawley, in consequence of this atrocious act, was recalled; but the interest of Lord Carlisle not only procured a pardon, but actually reinstated him as chief governor, which situation he retained until the year 1638, when he was expelled the Island by the general voice of the people. He was succeeded by Major Hunckes, who, leaving Barbadoes in 1641, left Philip Bell as his deputy, who in 1645 was appointed commander in chief.

At this period many persons in England, who wished to avoid the horrors of the civil war which afflicted the country, took refuge in Barbadoes; and the ruin of the king's affairs greatly increased the emigration, insomuch that in the year 1650 the whole population of Barbadoes extended to about 20,000, one half able to bear arms, and such was the progress made by the colony at that time, that one thousand of them furnished a regiment of horse. The confusion, which reigned in the parent state, suspended all control. All who applied to the governor, and paid him a gratuity had lands granted to them; and the proprietor's claim, disregarded during the disturbances in England, was at length apparently relinquished.

The colony thus left to itself, and enjoying an unbounded and unfettered freedom of trade, flourished exceedingly. In the year 1646 Lord Carlisle again renewed his claims; and conveyed to Lord Willoughby all his rights by a lease for twenty years on an agreement to pay him half the profits. Fearing however that his claims would be disputed by the resident planters, he solicited the king to appoint Lord Willoughby chief governor of the colony; which being granted, he (Lord W.) was well received by the people in

consequence of their loyalty and attachment to the king. But before he could accomplish the views of Carlisle, he was displaced by the government of Cromwell.

On the restoration of Charles II. Lord Willoughby solicited the King to permit him to return to his government; but in the meantime one of the planters, in order to induce the king more readily to take the sovereignty of Barbadoes into his own hands, offered, (before a Committee of the Privy Council, to whom the claims of the parties were referred) in the name of the inhabitants, to consent to lay a per centage duty on the produce exported from the island, out of which the governor might be honorably supported, and the king to dispose of the surplus as he should think fit. This was too tempting an offer to be refused. The proposition of a revenue immediately brought forward the claims of the creditors of Lord Carlisle, the Earl of Marlborough for the arrears of his annuity, Lord Willoughby for a moiety of the profits of his lease for the term it had to run, while the Earl of Kinnoul claimed the other moiety during that time, and the whole in reversion.

It was not an easy task to satisfy the demands of all these claimants, and at the same time to secure a perpetual revenue to the crown. An arrangement however with this view was at length effected; and Lord Willoughby was directed forthwith to resume his government, with instructions to insist on the Assembly of Barbadoes granting a lasting and irrevocable revenue of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to be paid in specie on all dead commodities the produce of the Island shipt to any part of the globe. When the incumbrances were paid, it was stipulated that the whole revenue, subject to the charge of £1,200 per annum, should be at the disposal of the crown. On these terms it was understood the proprietary government was to be dissolved, and to obtain this grant Lord Willoughby returned to his government in 1663.

It is said that the Assembly, awed by force and terrified by the example of severity exercised towards Colonel Farmer, who had suffered a long imprisonment in England for heading the opposition, at length passed an Act, granting the duties of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. required by the crown; the same Act declaring, that all defective titles to lands, occupied by individuals in the island, should be confirmed under the great seal of the island, and that the cultivators of the soil should be released from all rents and duties paid to the original proprietors, who should hold their lands in free and common socage, paying annually an ear of Indian Corn to His Majesty and his successors, if demanded, and that in consideration of the said $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent duty his Majesty should as heretofore incur the expences of repairing the Forts, Buildings, a Sessions House, and Prison, and all other public charges. The lands gained from the sea and the ten thousand acre Tract were exempted from the tax.

During the usurpation of Cromwell, in order to punish the inhabitants of Barbadoes for their attachment to Charles I., and for resisting his forces and his authority in 1651, and also to distress the Dutch, who carried on a lucrative trade with the colony, the then parliament resolved to alter the whole system of the commerce of Barbadoes, by

prohibiting all foreign ships from trading with the English plantations, and not suffering any goods to be imported into England but in English bottoms, or in ships of the European nation of which the merchandize imported was the genuine produce and manufacture.

Hence we see that measures of state policy, which are ultimately found to be of great importance, do not always originate in profound reflection or extended views. In fact, in the desire to punish the people of Barbadoes for their loyalty to an unfortunate sovereign originated the famous *Navigation Act*, which was afterwards confirmed in the reign of Charles II.

Barbadoes is in 13° 10" north latitude, and in longitude 59° west from London. It is 20 miles long, and 14 broad. According to a survey taken during the government of Lord Seaforth, it appears that the island contains 106,670 acres in a state of cultivation, and perhaps about 5,000 uncultivated.

From the accounts given of the ancient population and wealth of this island, it should seem that the soil must have been exceedingly fertile. It is even said that in 1670, Barbadoes contained 50,000 whites, and upwards of 100,000 black and coloured inhabitants, whose productive labour gave employment to 60,000 tons of shipping. The number of inhabitants however decreased with a rapidity that is almost incredible, since in 1724 the whites were reduced to 18,295, and in 1753 the negroes were reduced to 69,870. In 1786 the number of whites was further reduced to 16,167, and the negroes to 62,115, to which is to be added 838 free people of colour. In 1812, according to the best information which could be obtained, the whites amounted to about 15,000, the free persons of colour 8,000, and the negroes 59,506:—all which indicate a rapid decline, which is further evinced by the gradual diminution of the annual productions.

In 1736 the crop of sugar is stated to have amounted to 19,800 hogsheads of 15 cwt. The exports from 1740 to 1748, on an average of eight years only, amounted to 13,948 hhd. of sugar of the same weight, 60 hogsheads of melasses, and 12,884 puncheons of rum, 600 bags of cotton, 4,667 bags of ginger, and 327 gourds of aloes. The exports of 1784, 1785, and 1786, on an average produced 9,554 hogsheads of sugar, and 5,448 puncheons of rum, also 8,331 bags of cotton, and 6,330 bags of ginger: upon these last there appears to be an increase. In 1809 the exportation to Great Britain amounted to 9,314 hogsheads of sugar, 197 puncheons of rum, 1,359,823 pounds of cotton, and 3,471 cwt. coffee; since which the produce of the island has been nearly stationary.

A succession of hurricanes has no doubt contributed to the great reduction of the produce of this once valuable island; now reduced in white population nearly 3-4ths since 1670, and fully one half in productions since the year 1724. It must be attributed principally to the exhaustion of the soil, and perhaps to the want of the means of renovation. In the dreadful hurricane on the 10th October 1780, 4,326 of the inhabitants (of all colours) perished, and the loss which the colony then sustained was estimated at £1,320,564 sterling.

Barbadoes is divided into five districts and eleven parishes. The legislative body consists of a governor at a salary of £2000 sterling a year, paid out of the $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. duties, twelve of his Majesty's Council, and twenty-two members of the House of Assembly. The Governor and Council constitute the Court of Chancery. The Courts of Common Pleas and Exchequer are distinct from each other.

Notwithstanding the great reduction of the white population in Barbadoes, in this respect it still greatly exceeds the other islands, which are for the most part alarmingly deficient.

For a statistical account of the value of this colony, its power, and resources, the reader is referred to the Table, No. 9, annexed to this Chapter.

LEEWARD CHARIBBEE ISLANDS, COMPREHENDING ST. CHRISTOPHERS NEVIS, ANTIGUA, MONTserrat, AND THE VIRGIN ISLANDS.

These islands have formed one distinct government since the year 1672, under a governor denominated *Captain General of the Leeward Charibbee Islands*, whose residence is at Antigua; although he occasionally visits the others, in which in his absence, where no Lieutenant Governor is appointed, the President of the Council (being generally the oldest member) presides, and executes nearly all the functions assigned to the Governor.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S.

This island was first discovered by Columbus in November 1493, who gave it his own christian name. It was however never settled, or at all occupied by the Spaniards. It is the oldest of all the British settlements in the West Indies. It was settled by the English under Mr. Thomas Warner and fourteen others his associates in January 1623, one year previous to the occupation of Barbadoes. A good crop of tobacco was raised by the month of September, which the settlers proposed to make their staple commodity. A dreadful hurricane in the same year destroyed the plantations of these new settlers, which obliged Mr. Warner to return to England to implore succour.

In 1624, under the patronage and support of the Earl of Carlisle, the ship *Hopewell*, laden with necessaries of every kind, was dispatched to St. Christopher's, and arrived safe on the 18th of May in the same year. Mr. Warner returned in 1625, accompanied by a large body of emigrants; and D'Esnambuc, who had commanded a French privateer, arrived nearly at the same time with about thirty veterans, who were cordially received by the English, they being at this period under some apprehension from the native Charaibs, with whom afterwards hostilities commenced, which ended in the expulsion of the natives with considerable loss on both sides.

After this, Warner and D'Esnambuc returned to Europe to solicit succour from their respective nations: they came home as conquerors, and were well received. Warner received the honour of knighthood, and returned with the rank and power of Governor in 1626, with 400 recruits, amply supplied with necessaries of every kind.

In 1627 D'Esnambuc sailed from France with 532 recruits, the greater part of whom perished at sea for want of provisions. The survivors were kindly received by the English; and in order to prevent disputes between the two nations, it was agreed that they should divide the whole island equally. With this view, a Treaty of Partition was signed on the 3d of May 1627, comprehending a league defensive and offensive; but the alliance proved of little avail against the Spanish invasion, which took place two years afterwards.

For some years the two nations appear to have lived on amicable terms; but unhappily the colony became a scene of hostility, violence, and bloodshed for half a century.

In 1689 the English General Codrington not only compelled the French settlers to surrender, but forced 1800 of them to seek an asylum in Martinique and Hispaniola. In 1705, a French armament laid waste many of the English possessions, and the ravages were so great that Parliament granted £103,000 to the sufferers to enable them to re-settle their estates. By the peace of Utrecht the island was ceded wholly to the English; and the French possessions were publicly sold for the benefit of the British Government. Such a course would not have been pursued under the same circumstances in the present times.

It will be seen by the annexed Table, that St. Christopher's contains 43,726 acres, of which about 30,126 are cultivated in canes, pasture, and provisions; the uncultivated lands amounting to 13,600 acres, which being mountainous, are unproductive. The plains of this island are remarkably fertile, and the sugar they produce has always from its superior quality and strength yielded the highest prices. The average produce of the island may be estimated at about 10,000 hogsheads, and is rather diminishing than increasing. A great expence is incurred by the planters in procuring manure for their lands; and they often suffer much from droughts, notwithstanding that the country is well watered by springs and rivulets. The island contains nine parishes, and four towns and hamlets; also two fortifications of considerable strength, besides five batteries. The same system of government prevails here as in the other West India Colonies.

The reader is referred to the Table, No. 9, annexed to this Chapter, for a statistical account of the power and resources of the Colony.

NEVIS.

Nevis was first settled in the year 1628, under the protection of Sir Thomas Warner. It is a small, but beautiful island, in circumference not more than 24 English miles. It consists of a single mountain, rising gradually from the sea like a cone; and was probably produced by a volcanic explosion at some remote period of the world, since there

is a visible hollow near the summit, which contains a hot spring strongly impregnated with sulphur.

The country is well watered, and the land in general fertile, and produces on an average about 16 cwt. of sugar an acre. Four thousand acres are in cultivation, besides what may be appropriated to provisions. A considerable part of the summit must of course be unproductive. This island produces no staple of any consequence except sugar. It is divided into four parishes. It is governed by a Council and Assembly, the same as the other islands, and the President of the Council presides in the absence of the Governor.

Annexed to this Chapter is a statistical account of the population, resources, and value of the Colony, to which the reader is referred.

ANTIGUA.

Antigua was first settled by the English under a son of Sir Thomas Warner, whose descendants still possess considerable property in the island. It had been abandoned by the native Charaibs, in consequence of there being neither rivers or rivulets, or even springs in the whole island, and this circumstance deterred European adventurers from attempting to settle in Antigua; but the soil being found to be fertile, and it being discovered that cisterns could be constructed so as to hold and preserve rain water, and the water being found to be light, pure, and salubrious, the settlers first cultivated tobacco. The era however of the prosperity of the island did not commence until 1674, when Colonel Codrington of Barbadoes removed to it; by whose enterprising spirit the planting of the sugar cane was introduced, and his example was followed by many of the other settlers.

Colonel Codrington having been appointed some years after Commander in Chief of all the Leeward Charibbean Islands, great prosperity prevailed in the whole of them under his wise and benevolent government, insomuch that in 1690 Antigua contained 6,000 white inhabitants. This able and distinguished officer dying in 1698 was succeeded by his son Christopher, a gentleman of great literary attainments. In 1704 this gentleman was succeeded by Sir William Matthews, who dying soon after his arrival, a monster of the name of Park, born in Virginia, procured the appointment through the interest of the Duke of Marlborough. He is said to have revered neither God nor man, and that he spared no man in his anger, nor woman in his lust. His administration was a series of the most odious tyranny, injustice, oppression, and profligacy, which became so intolerable that in 1710 he was torn to pieces by an enraged and oppressed people.

Antigua is about fifty miles in circumference. It contains 59,838 acres, of which 44,838 acres are in a state of cultivation. It produces some cotton and tobacco, and in good years a considerable quantity of provisions are raised; but the seasons are very

variable, and the island suffers greatly by droughts, by which the crops of sugar are often reduced to $\frac{1}{4}$ of the produce of the island in favourable years.

There appears to have been a gradual decrease both in the white population, and in the productions of the island for a series of years. It contains six parishes, eleven districts, and six towns and villages. And it has several very excellent harbours; the principal of these are English Harbour and St. John's, both which are well fortified. At the former a naval yard and arsenal, with other conveniences for careening ships of war, have been established. The form of government is similar to that of the other islands. The Council consists of twelve members, and the House of Assembly of twenty-five.

The reader is referred to the Table, No. 9, annexed to this Chapter, for a statistical account of the population, resources, and value of the Colony.

MONTSERRAT.

Montserrat was first settled the same as Nevis, by a small colony from St. Christopher's in 1632. This island is about three leagues in length, and as many in breadth, and contains about 21,000 acres of land, a considerable proportion of which is either mountainous or barren. The Table annexed details the proportion of cultivated and uncultivated land. Its productions are sugar, rum, and cotton. Its form of government is the same as in the other islands; six members compose the Council, and the Assembly eight. The President of the Council exercises the functions of the Governor in his absence.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.

The Virgin Islands, about forty in number—large and small,† were first discovered by Columbus in 1580. A party of Dutch buccaneers, who settled at Tortola, were the first possessors of such of these islands as now belong to the British Crown. In 1666 they were driven out by a stronger party, who called themselves English. Soon after Tortola and its dependencies, by a commission granted by Charles II. to Sir William Stapleton, were annexed to the Leeward Island Government. The Dutch had done little towards the cultivation of the island at the time they were expelled.

About the year 1694, some Englishmen with their families removed from Anguilla to the Virgin Islands, who made considerable improvements. Their wants were few,

† The principal of these islands are—

Tortola,	Prickly Pear,
Virgin Gorda,	Cumana's,
Jos van Dykes,	Ginger,
Guana Isle,	Cooper's,
Beef and Thatch Islands,	Salt Island,
Anegada,	Peter's Island, &c.
Nichar,	

and their government simple and without expence. The judicial powers were executed by the Deputy Governor and by a Council nominated from among themselves. There were no taxes. Money, when wanted for public purposes, was raised by voluntary contribution. Under such circumstances, and under such a government it could not be expected that the colony would rise to much importance. The inhabitants, whose number in 1756 amounted to 1,263 whites and 6,121 blacks, wished to be put on the same footing as the other islands, by the establishment of a civil government and courts of justice.

This object however was not accomplished until 1773, when on agreeing to subject themselves to an impost of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on all produce exported, the Governor-General of the Leeward Islands, in obedience to his Majesty's orders, convened by proclamation on the 30th November in the same year a House of Representatives, who met on the 1st of February following, and fulfilled their engagements to the crown, granting at the same time £400 currency per annum, as their proportion towards the salary of the Governor General. The reader is referred to the Table, annexed to this Chapter, for a statistical view of the resources of the Virgin Islands, in common with all the others subject to the $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. duties.

While Jamaica and the ceded islands have been progressively advancing, the Leeward Charibbean Islands have been declining both in respect to the productions of the soil and the white population.

CEDED ISLANDS, COMPRISING GRENADA, ST. VINCENT, DOMINICA, ST. LUCIA, AND TOBAGO.

GRENADA, AND ITS DEPENDENCIES.

Grenada was discovered (and so named) by Columbus in his third voyage in the year 1498. It was then inhabited by a numerous and warlike people, who remained unmolested until 1650, when the then French Governor of Martinique collected about two hundred desperate ruffians, and with this force landed in Grenada in the month of June. After pretending to purchase the country at the expence of some knives, hatchets, a large quantity of glass beads, and two bottles of brandy (which last he presented to the chief) the island, according to Father du Tertre, was then ceded to the French nation by the natives, and considered as a lawful purchase. The poor savages, unconscious of having relinquished their country, refused to confirm the grant, which was considered by their invaders as an act of obstinacy and rebellion.

Du Parquet, the Governor of Martinique, having thus established a colony in Grenada, and erected a fort in its defence, left it in charge of his kinsman Le Compte, who

in eight months afterwards was engaged in a war with the Charaibs, in which the greatest acts of cruelty were sanctioned by his authority. Du Parquet, as soon as he learnt that the natives had revolted, sent three hundred men from Martinique with orders entirely *to extirpate the poor natives*; but previous to this Le Compte had proceeded to murder every native he met with, not sparing men, women, and children. The barbarities committed are almost too shocking to the feelings of humanity to admit of recital; suffice it to say, that the whole of the unhappy Charaibs were either massacred or driven into the sea, where they perished.

In 1656 the island was purchased from Du Parquet by the Count de Cevillac for 30,000 crowns. His oppressive conduct however compelled the most respectable settlers to quit the country, while the arrogant and rapacious governor he had appointed was seized by the people, tried, condemned, and shot. Some years after Count de Cevillac sold his interests in Grenada to the French West India Company; but their charter being abolished in 1674, the island became vested in the crown of France. In 1700 it contained 251 white and 525 black inhabitants, three plantations of sugar, and fifty-two of Indigo.

In 1762 the island was captured by the British naval and military forces; and by the peace of Paris, on the 10th February 1763, it was ceded with all its dependencies to Great Britain. At that period its produce was estimated at 11,000 hogsheads of sugar, and 27,000 lbs. of indigo. By the terms of the treaty the French inhabitants were to be protected in their persons and property; and subsequent proclamations gave to the inhabitants a form of government similar to the other British colonies.

The first Assembly was called by General Melville, the British Governor, in 1765. Previous to this however the question of the $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. duties, the same as paid in the other British islands, was demanded by the British Government, and was ordered to be levied in lieu of the customs and duties formerly paid to the French king. This was resisted by the people. And becoming a question of law in the Court of King's Bench, and elaborately discussed, the Lord Chief Justice pronounced judgement against the crown in 1774.

The result was, that these duties were abolished not only in Grenada, but also in the ceded islands of Dominica, St. Vincent, and Tobago. A considerable ferment was raised in the island, in consequence of an order of Government to admit a certain number of Roman Catholics into the Council and House of Assembly; and great disorders prevailed, and the island continued in a state of contention until it was captured by the French in 1779. It was however restored by the general pacification, which took place in 1783.

The island is divided into six parishes. By an Act passed in 1784, provision was made for the establishment of a Protestant clergy. Its dependencies are the small islands called Carriacou, and Isle Ronde, and some smaller islands upon which cotton is chiefly cultivated.

St. George (formerly Fort Royal) is the capital of the colony. It is situated in a spacious bay on the west side of the island, and contains one of the safest and most commodious harbours for shipping in the British West Indies. It has lately been fortified at a prodigious expence. The other towns, or more properly villages, are generally situated at the harbours of the maritime parishes. The principal town, St. George, was made a free-port in 1787.

In Grenada, like all the other islands, the white population has been gradually decreasing. In 1771 they amounted to 1,600. In 1777 they had diminished to about 1300. In 1793 they could not be estimated at more than 1,000. By the Table annexed the whole number, according to the most authentic accounts, do not exceed 800.

The constitution of Grenada differs little from those of the other British West India Colonies. A Governor, and twelve members of the Council, and an Assembly of twenty-six, chosen by the people, as their representatives. These three branches form the legislative body.

For a general statistical account of the population, value of the colony, its resources, trade, and navigation, the reader is referred to the Tables annexed to this Chapter.

ST. VINCENT, AND ITS DEPENDENCIES.

According to the Spanish historians, Columbus bestowed the name of St. Vincent on this island, in consequence of having discovered it on the 22d of June, being St. Vincent's day in the Calendar. It does not however appear that the Spaniards ever formally took possession of it. It was inhabited by the native yellow Charaibs, a warlike people, who were numerous in this island, perhaps partly on account of its natural fertility, and partly as a point of rendezvous of expeditions to the continent.

In process of time, the accident of shipwreck established among the native inhabitants a race of people from Africa, who after awhile became formidable rivals. These people were known by the name of the black Charaibs, in contradistinction to the aborigines. This shipwreck of Africans is supposed to have taken place about the year 1678 or 1680. The negroes took shelter in the woods, and the Indians suffered them to remain. By intermarriages with the natives, and by the accession of runaway negroes from Barbadoes, they became at length very formidable, insomuch that in the early part of the last century they compelled the native Charaibs to restore to them the north west part of the island.

From the year 1672, when Charles II. attempted to assume the sovereignty of this and the neighbouring islands of St. Lucia, Dominica, and Tobago, until 1748 great contentions prevailed between England and France respecting them; when at length by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle they were declared neutral, and such of the European inhabitants and proprietors as remained were left in undisturbed possession.

The peace, however, which terminated the seven years war in 1763, gave to Great Britain in perpetuity the islands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, while the sovereignty of St. Lucia was allotted to France. In this treaty no mention was made of the Charaibs. The aborigines by this time were reduced to a wretched remnant. About one hundred families were all that remained in St. Vincent of what was called the yellow Charaibs, who had taken refuge in the mountainous district of the island. The country had become a theatre of savage hostilities between the Charaibs and the Negroes, in which the latter are said to have been generally victorious. In 1763 the black Charaibs were estimated at 2,000.

In 1779, during the French American War, the island of St. Vincent was captured by a small body of French troops sent from Martinique. On this occasion the black Charaibs joined the enemy. At the peace, however, which took place in 1783, the island was again restored to Great Britain.

The Charaibs had been a source of great distress to the British settlers, from the time that the island was first ceded in 1763 until their final removal in 1797. Instigated by the French residing in the neighbouring islands these jealous and ignorant savages made war upon the British settlers in 1772, which was terminated in a peace, that assigned to them a certain tract of land, afterwards denominated the Charaib country, which was ceded to them in perpetuity by the British Government.

Again in 1795 these people, instigated by the French who landed troops on the island, waged a new war against the inhabitants, which continued for more than two years, during which period the enemy committed great excesses and many acts of cruelty, besides destroying much property. They were, however, at length subdued, and removed by order of Government to the Island of Rattan, in the Bay of Honduras, with provisions sufficient to subsist them for a time, and implements of husbandry to enable them to cultivate the land, and to raise that species of food, to which they had been accustomed. The ravages and devastations, committed by the Charaibs during this sanguinary war, cost the proprietors of the lands fully one third of the value of their estates.

St. Vincent is a very beautiful island,—in many parts very fertile, and extremely well calculated from the soil to produce sugar of the very best quality, and every other article cultivated in tropical climates. The island is watered by above twenty small rivers, turning water mills, and affording other accommodations to the inhabitants. The country is however in many parts mountainous; and has recently suffered by a dreadful volcanic eruption, which destroyed some estates and greatly injured several others. This awful visitation took place early in the morning of the 1st of May 1812. The volcanic matter not only covered the whole island in a greater or less degree, but also many ships at a great distance at sea. It even extended to the island of Barbadoes, upon which, to the astonishment of the inhabitants, vast quantities of the lighter particles of the volcanic matter were deposited on the same morning. The noise of the mountain was even heard at the distance of 300 miles.

In consequence of this calamity the Parliament of the United Kingdom, in the year 1813, voted £25,000 to the relief of the sufferers.

When this island was restored to Great Britain in 1783, it contained 61 sugar estates, 200 acres in cocoa, 500 in coffee, 400 in cotton, 500 in tobacco, and 50 in indigo, besides land set apart for raising provisions.

In the year 1800 the quantity of sugar made amounted to 16,518 hogsheads, and in the following year the crops were increased to 17,908. In 1810, 18,288 hogsheads were produced, and at present the average quantity may possibly extend to 20,000 hogsheads.

The reader is referred to the Statistical Table annexed for a detailed view of the population, property, annual productions, and commerce of this valuable island.

St. Vincent, in its mode of government, differs in nothing from Grenada. Twelve Members compose the Council, and seventeen the House of Assembly. The white population decreases in the same proportion as in the other islands. The government of St. Vincent has attached to it eight small islands, called *Union*, containing 2,150 acres, *Bequia* 3,700, *Canouane* 1,777, *Mustique* 1,200, besides the smaller islands of *Petit St. Vincent*, *Petit Martinique*, *Maillereau*, and *Balleseau*, each of which produces some cotton.

It is somewhat remarkable, that this island has never in any injurious degree been visited by any of those violent tornadoes or hurricanes, which have so frequently devastated the neighbouring islands, and so often been fatal to the important colony of Jamaica.

DOMINICA.

This island having been discovered by Columbus on Sunday, the 3d of November 1493, he thought proper to give it the name by which it is still recognized. It was alternately claimed by the French and English, by which contentions were generated, until by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle it was declared neutral. In 1759 it was captured, and by right of conquest came into the possession of Great Britain. At the peace of Paris in 1763 it became a British colony in perpetuity.

At this period many coffee settlements and other plantations had been established by subjects of France. The British Government secured to these people their possessions on taking the oath of allegiance to his Majesty, and paying a moderate quit rent. The other lands in the island were sold by the order of the British Government; and about 96,344 acres, comprising about one half the surface of the island, were disposed of in allotments from 50 to 100 acres, which produced £312,090 11s. 6d. sterling. The purchasers, however, were grievously disappointed; for the land in many instances proving very steril and unfit for the cultivation of sugar, considerable losses were sustained by several of those who made experiments, who after a trial were forced to abandon their plantations.

The Frenchmen, 343 in number, who became lessees of 10,541 acres, chiefly confined themselves to the cultivation of coffee, the quality of which has generally been considered as superior to that raised in the other British colonies. The extent of their crops in 1787 was 18,149 cwt. and has since been augmented to 40,000 cwt. in favourable years. Coffee is however a very uncertain crop, and fluctuates frequently down to one half, one fourth, and sometimes even one sixth of what is deemed a full crop.

The sugar plantations have not been so successful, nor is it likely that this valuable article of commerce will ever be cultivated to any extent in this colony. After struggling with a steril soil, frequent hurricanes, and other disasters since 1763, the whole extent of the exportation cannot be estimated at more than 5000 hogsheads. It has been recently much less; and there is no prospect of a larger exportation with the present force of negro labourers, who cannot now by any possibility be augmented.

There is however much land in the island, which although not fit for the cultivation of sugar would produce Indian corn, Guinea corn, buck-wheat, yams, sweet potatoes, plantains, and other food, which would abundantly support a considerable white population, who might besides cultivate cotton, coffee, cocoa, and other minor staples upon a small scale, to enable them to purchase clothing and other necessities.

Dominica was in a flourishing condition at the commencement of the American war in 1776. It was then a free port, and a general mart resorted to by trading vessels from most parts of the West Indies as well as America for the sale of produce and the purchase of merchandize and negroes. It had risen to a considerable height of prosperity, when it was captured by the French in 1778.

This island has unfortunately experienced many vicissitudes. The French Governor Duchilleau conducted himself in the most tyrannical manner. He disarmed the British inhabitants, and distributed their arms among the runaway negroes, and engaged them to lend their assistance, if necessary. He prohibited the British from assembling together more than two in the same place, and ordered the sentinels to shoot them if they passed in greater numbers. He even prohibited lights in their houses after nine o'clock, and would not allow them to walk in the streets after that hour without a candle and lantern. Mr. Robert Howe, an English merchant and owner of a ship then in the bay, was shot dead for attempting to go on board his own vessel at that hour; and the sentinel who murdered him was advanced in rank in his regiment for having (as the Governor expressed it) done his duty! All letters written by British subjects were opened by this tyrant; and ultimately the town of Roseau was set on fire by the French soldiers, strongly suspected to have been done by the order of the Governor.

His conduct and behaviour on the night of this calamity strongly confirmed the suspicion, since he appeared to be amused with the horrible scene, and would not suffer his soldiers to assist in extinguishing the flames of the houses inhabited by the British; on the contrary, he added robbery and insult to misfortune by permitting them to pillage the sufferers. By this catastrophe, which took place on the evening of Easter Sunday,

1781, five hundred houses were consumed in a few hours, and merchandize and effects, to the amount of £200,000 sterling.

No trade was permitted for five years, except to the Island of St. Eustatia. Many of the planters were ruined by these accumulated distresses, and no less than 30 sugar plantations were abandoned by the proprietors. At length, in the month of January 1783, this unfortunate Island was again restored to the British Crown.

Dominica enjoys the same privileges, and has the same civil establishment as the other British West India Islands. The legislative authority is vested in the Governor, 12 members of the Council appointed by the Crown, and 19 representatives forming the Assembly, who are chosen by the people.

In addition to the hurricanes, which have at different times greatly distressed this Island, great ravages were experienced by the invasion of the French in 1805, although they were bravely resisted by the troops under Sir George Prevost, and ultimately compelled to abandon the enterprize. As a compensation, in part, for the losses sustained by the excesses committed by the enemy, the Parliament of the United Kingdom voted £50,000.

In the year 1813, this unfortunate Island was visited by two hurricanes, one succeeding another within a short interval of time, by which many houses in Roseau were thrown down, and great losses sustained by the inhabitants; and to add to these great calamities, the runaway negroes, who had in a course of years deserted the plantations of their masters, to the number of 500 or more, and who had established themselves, and cultivated the grounds by which they raised provisions for their support in the fastnesses of the mountains, have been in the habit of making nightly incursions, plundering the plantations, and carrying off negroes and arms, so as by open acts of rebellion to threaten the destruction of the colony, which at length became so alarming that active measures have been found necessary to bring these deluded people into a state of subordination. Nothing can so strongly evince the necessity of a white population, in order to counteract the disposition which is thus manifested towards insubordination, desertion, and rebellion, on the part of the negro labourers.

Dominica is 29 miles in length, and about 16 in breadth. It contains many lofty mountains, interspersed with fruitful and beautiful vallies. In the woods there are innumerable swarms of bees, which hive in the trees, and produce great quantities of wax and honey, equal to any in Europe. This bee must have been transported from Europe, as it is exactly the same, and differs from the native bee, which is much smaller, and has no sting, and is in all respects different from the European bee.

There are upwards of 30 fine rivers in Dominica, besides a great number of rivulets. In most parts of the interior the soil is a light brown-coloured mould, and appears to have been washed from the mountains. In many of the vallies, and towards the sea-coast, the soil is deep and black. Yet the quantity of fertile land, upon the whole, bears no pro-

portion to the inferior soil. Coffee appears to answer better than sugar, the cultivation of which might be carried to a considerable extent.

For the present population, value of landed and other property, and the annual value of the productions of the soil, trade, &c. the reader is referred to the Table, No. 9, annexed to this Chapter.

ST. LUCIA.

St. Lucia, one of the Charibbee Islands, was declared neutral, with several others, by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. When Dominica, St. Vincent, Grenada, and Tobago, were ceded in perpetuity to Great Britain by the Treaty of Paris in 1763, St. Lucia was allotted to France. During the American war, in 1779, it was taken by the British; but was again restored by the peace in 1783. It was again taken at the commencement of the French revolutionary war in 1794,—evacuated in 1795,—and retaken in 1796. It was restored again to France by the Treaty of Amiens in 1801; but was again captured by the British soon after the renewal of hostilities in 1803, and has remained ever since under the British Crown.

By the recent Treaty of Paris, signed on the 30th of May 1814, it has been confirmed in perpetuity to Great Britain. In consequence of this Island having been, with a few intervals, so long under the dominion of His Majesty, a considerable number of the sugar and other plantations are the property of British subjects.

This Island is 27 miles long, and 12 miles broad. It consists of plains, well watered with rivulets, and hills furnished with timber. It possesses one of the best and safest harbours in the West Indies. For the population, power, and resources of this Island, with its estimated value, trade, shipping, &c. the reader is referred to the Table, No. 9, annexed to this Chapter.

TOBAGO.

The Island of Tobago was nearly in a similar situation with St. Vincent, Dominica, and Grenada, until it was declared neutral by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. It was ceded to Great Britain, by the Treaty of Paris, in 1763. It was captured by the French in 1781. And at the subsequent peace, in 1783, the Island was finally given up to the French.

During the French revolutionary war, in 1793, Tobago, being then and still inhabited by British subjects, was captured by His Majesty's forces, and remained under the British Government until 1802, when the Treaty of Amiens again restored it to France; but it did not remain long in the hands of the French, since in consequence of the commence-

ment of a new war it was again captured in 1803, and has continued ever since in the possession of Great Britain, and is confirmed in perpetuity by the Treaty of Peace in 1814.

Tobago is 32 miles long, and 10 broad, and near its north-east extremity is little Tobago, which is two miles long and one broad.

This Island, above all others in the West Indies, under the British Crown, perhaps, admits of the most improvement. It differs from every other, inasmuch as it is cultivatable throughout, although not much above one third is yet in a state of cultivation. The soil is deep and rich, and the hills are covered with woods. Rivers from the hills run through every valley into the sea.

The unfortunate capture in 1781, and the cession of this Island to France in 1783, and the uncertainty of its remaining with this country at the conclusion of peace, have greatly retarded its progress; and yet, under every disadvantage, it produced 15,327 hogsheads of sugar in 1805, and with sufficient physical force (which is, however, not now attainable by an increase of the black population,) might be extended to 25,000 hogsheads.

This Island holds out many advantages to white settlers, where so large a proportion of rich soil, capable of producing Maize, ground Provisions, and all the minor staples of Cotton, Coffee, Cocoa, Ginger, &c. is still unoccupied.

The reader is referred to the Statistical Table, annexed to this Chapter, for the population, resources, and value of this Island.

TRINIDAD.

The Island of Trinidad was discovered by Columbus, in the year 1498. It is about 90 miles in length, and 50 in breadth. In 1595 it was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh, and in 1676 by the French, who plundered and left it. It remained afterwards under the dominion of Spain, inhabited however by a mixture of several nations, until the year 1797, when it was captured by the British, and was afterwards ceded in perpetuity to this country by the Treaty of Amiens in 1801.

It abounds with resources calculated to render it a most valuable colony. The soil is rich in many parts. There is an almost endless variety of timber in the Island, some of which has grown to an immense size; and much of the wood is extremely beautiful, and well adapted for cabinet work. The Island produces Sugar, Rum, Coffee, Cocoa, Tobacco of a fine quality, Indian Corn, and every species of ground Provisions peculiar to the West Indies, with a great variety of fruits. It has a Lake, which is composed of a substance similar to Pitch, apparently possessing all the properties of that resin, which is considered as a great phenomenon.

This fine Island only requires an extensive and industrious white population to render it among the richest and most productive countries in the world; since every article of

superior value, in a commercial point of view, produced in tropical climates, may be here cultivated to great advantage. Provisions, equal to the consumption of a very extensive population, may be raised at much less labour than in Northern Countries, and vast herds of cattle may be reared and fed. Much of the timber might also be converted into an important article of commerce.

Although this valuable Island was in the hands of the Spaniards nearly 300 years, yet it may still be considered as in a state of infancy. The state of this colony, in population and agriculture, &c. according to an official return made on the 31st of December, 1811, by order of the local Government, stood thus :—

	Males.	Females.	Male Children.	Female Children.	Total.	The whole Population comprises various Nations, viz.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
White Population -	1,165	725	389	338	2,617	British	506	255	519	1,280
Free People of Colour	1,790	2,380	1,456	1,417	7,043	Spaniards	227	183	149	559
Indians -	422	476	415	403	1,716	French	347	275	59	681
Negro Labourers -	9,321	7,019	2,506	2,297	21,143	Germans	22	3	0	25
				Total -	32,519	Italians	17	1	0	18
Free Africans -					111	Corsicans	20	0	0	20
Increase as by the annexed Table					460	Maltese	10	0	0	10
				Total -	33,090	Portuguese	0	4	0	4
						Americans	16	4	0	20
							1,165	725	727	2,617

AGRICULTURE.

	Acres in Sugar Canes..	Acres in Cotton.	Acres in Ground Provisions.	Acres in Pasturage for Cattle.	Acres of Land granted.	Total.
Land cultivated, including } Land granted - - - }	10,790	1,262	5,726	9,497	147,548	174,823 Acres.

PLANTATIONS.

Crop in the Year 1811.	Plantain Trees	- - -	2,923,684	Agricultural and other Stock.
18,513,302 lbs. Sugar.	Coffee Trees	- - -	1,304,180	445 Horses.
276,243 lbs. Coffee.	Cocoa Trees	- - -	870,975	308 Mares.
640,732 lbs. Cocoa.				5,287 Mules.
159,136 lbs. Cotton.	Total	-	5,098,839	1,072 Cows.
426,691 Gallons Rum.				404 Bulls.
324,942 Gallons Syrup.				605 Oxen.
				Total - 8,121

Sugar Works, &c.	9 Water Mills.	Implements of Husbandry, and Vessels and Boats.
	6 Wind Mills.	520 Carts.
	242 Cattle Mills.	220 Boats and Canoes.
	11 Steam Engines.	11 Launches.
1,188 Boilers mounted.		6 Sloops and Schooners.
177 Stills, aggregate of 48,163 Gallons.		
113 Coffee Mills.		

It is to be lamented, that the above statements do not disclose any thing very flattering with respect to the advancement of the colony. The Chinese, who were sent to this island, are included in the people of colour, and of these it appears that only 17 males remain. Among the Negroes there were 742 deaths, and only 553 births; which indicates a much greater decrease in the black population than is supposed to prevail in the other islands, except Grenada, where the mortality appears to have been considerable. Many of the British speculators purchased and settled estates in this island, after its capture, and ultimately suffered great losses.

The jurisprudence of this colony is still regulated by the Spanish laws; and the governor and council, appointed by the crown, legislate for the people, as far as legislation is necessary. Indeed, when it is considered, that the British adult population is only 761, and the foreign white inhabitants 1,129, the colony has not yet reached the maturity which may be necessary for the introduction of the British constitution and laws.

With respect to the produce of the island, and particularly the articles of sugar and rum, no expectation can be held out as to any increase of the quantity now made, and the same may be said in regard to all the other colonies; since the operations necessary in cultivating and preparing sugar and rum require the co-operation of Negro labourers, who cannot now be increased, nor can an augmentation of the black population be reasonably expected, while the males so greatly exceed the females in point of numbers. But with respect to the inferior staples of *coffee, cocoa, cotton, tobacco, ginger, pimento*, and the minor articles of *castor-oil, arrow-root, tamarinds, dye and ornamental woods, Indian corn, Guinea corn, buck wheat, yams, sweet potatoes, plantains, hoys, poultry*, and *Guinea grass for pasturing cattle*, an industrious white population would be perfectly competent, and for which the lands and woods of Trinidad afford a very ample resource.

This extensive and fine island has shared in the disasters, to which many of the other West India colonies have been subject. In the year 1809, the extensive town of Port of Spain (the capital of the island), chiefly built of wood, was nearly destroyed by a dreadful fire, which consumed all or most of the public edifices, and reduced the inhabitants to the greatest distress. Towards their relief and for the purpose of rebuilding the public edifices, Parliament liberally granted £50,000 sterling in the years 1811 and 1812. The town has since been rebuilt with stone, of which the island furnishes abundance, and which it is to be hoped may prevent the recurrence of a similar calamity.

The reader is referred to the statistical table, No. 9, annexed to this chapter, for an aggregate view of the population, the value of the landed and other property, the amount of the annual produce, the trade, &c. of this colony.

THE BRITISH SETTLEMENT IN THE BAY OF HONDURAS.

The British settlement of Honduras is situated in the province of Yucatan, in the Spanish Main in South America:—A peninsula extending from the province of Honduras

to the sea northward, by forming the bay of Campeachy on the West, and the bay of Honduras on the East. It extends from about 16 to 21 degrees north latitude, and from about 84 to 94° West longitude. This region of South America was discovered by Columbus in 1502.

For a considerable length of time the outcasts of most of the nations of Europe, and men of desperate fortunes, sought an asylum in this quarter of the world, who were allured to this remote region from the opportunities it afforded to improve their condition by rapine and plunder. At length, however, when their atrocities became matured into system, so as to render them so formidable and noxious as to require correction, they found it necessary to relinquish their criminal pursuits for habits of a more regular and less offensive nature.

Previous to the Peace of Paris, in 1763, the British settlers had established themselves with the leave and approbation of the native Indians on the East Coast of Yucatan. The nearest Spanish settlements being those of Bucalar to the North, and Omoa and Truxillo to the South.

By the 17th article of the abovementioned Treaty, it was stipulated that all the fortifications, which had been formed by the subjects of His Majesty in the bay of Honduras, should within four months after its ratification be entirely demolished, which was accordingly done; and, in consideration of which, the Spanish government engaged to protect the British settlers during their residence in the country; and further, that in the event of war between the two countries, six months notice should be given to them to remove their effects without molestation.

In the year 1779, however, notwithstanding this Treaty, the British settlers in Honduras, without any previous notice being given, or any war having taken place between the two countries, were attacked by a strong force in their defenceless situation, their property materially injured, their persons seized, many of them put in irons, and all of both sexes marched from their homes to Merida, the capital of Yucatan,—afterwards counter-marched to the coast, and from thence shipt to the Havannah, where they remained in captivity until July 1782, when they were suffered to proceed to Jamaica.

Although the losses sustained by many individuals were very considerable, no redress could ever be obtained from the court of Spain. Many of the settlers sought a refuge among the Indians on the Musquito shore, between the years 1779 and 1784. About this time, in consequence of a Treaty of Peace between Great Britain and Spain, the former settlers resumed their station at Honduras; since which no molestation has been offered with the exception of an ineffectual attack in 1798, by the Spanish Field-Marshal O'Neil, who was forced to retire with inconsiderable loss from St. George's Key, although his army was computed at 3000 strong.

The chief settlement of Balize is about 11 miles distant from St. George's Key. The climate of this part of the American continent is greatly superior to that of most other parts of the vast regions of South America, either in higher or lower latitudes. It is superior also, in this respect, to the West India islands; from which valetudinarians

resort frequently to Honduras, and experience the good effects of the climate by a speedy recovery.

The town of Balize (called by the Spaniards Wallix) is situated at the mouth of the river of the same name, and is the only regular establishment which the British settlers have formed in this country. It is immediately open to the sea, and although its situation is low, the groups of lofty cocoa-nut trees, and the gay foliage of the tamarind thickly interspersed, contribute to give a very lively and pleasing effect to the dwellings of the inhabitants, independently of the luxury of the shade they afford under the influence of a tropical sun.

There are about two hundred houses of all descriptions in the town of Balize. Many of these houses, particularly those that are owned by opulent merchants are spacious, commodious, and well finished. They are entirely built of wood, raised on pillars of mahogany eight or ten feet from the ground; and every habitation has upper and lower piazzas, appendages indispensable in warm climates. There is no intercourse by land from the town into the interior country; travelling can therefore only be performed by water, with the exception of four or five miles, but through a swamp, which in fine weather affords a pleasant ride, the sides of this road being lined profusely with a most agreeable variety of foliage, such as the mangrove, manchineal, and poponax. The latter is singularly attracting from the delicate fragrance of its small yellow flower.

Many of the Keys, or low islands contiguous to the shores of Honduras, are of considerable extent, and some of them in particular spots are cultivated chiefly by persons engaged in turtling and fishing.

St. George's Key is a most agreeable and healthy spot, and contains a number of good houses. From the purity of the air it is a desirable residence for the sick and convalescent. It was formerly the chief place of trade, and where the merchants almost wholly resided. It was here also, until the town of Balize was built, that ships discharged their European merchandize and loaded their home cargoes.

Ambergrease Key, to the northward of Balize, is also of considerable extent, abounding with large fresh water lakes, and at most seasons plentifully stocked with almost every kind of game. It produces logwood, and brazilletto—a valuable dye.

These Keys are extremely numerous, and scattered over the whole coast. They were long the chosen haunts of the buccaneers, who infested this part of America, and who could at most seasons issue forth from them to commit piracies on the neighbouring seas or contiguous shores.

It will appear in the sequel, that the British settlements in Honduras have made considerable progress in trade and improvements. It is certainly worthy of consideration how far their contiguity to the Province of Yucatan to the northward, and the extensive Guatemala country, and its valuable dependencies to the southward, might not be rendered advantageous to this country in a commercial point of view, by extending to this settlement the privileges of a free port. Guatemala has always ranked as among the first of

the Spanish trans-atlantic possessions, being extremely rich in many valuable articles of export. The Gulph of Dolce, which is but a few leagues distant from the British settlement, and Truxillo, from the excellence of its harbour, would deserve very particular consideration, if an extension of commercial intercourse should be attempted in this quarter of the world.

Establishments for the purpose of trade might also be advantageously formed in various parts of the neighbouring Musquito Country, to which considerable encouragement is held out by the friendly disposition of the demi-civilized inhabitants of that nation towards the British.

The exports from this country principally in manufactures to the British settlements in Honduras are more extensive than could be expected, where the consumption of the population is so limited. This arises from the comparative affluence of the greater number of persons composing it.

The proprietors of the negroes are in general wealthy, and the negroes themselves are said to possess indulgences, which are not granted to persons of their condition in any other country. The people of colour and free blacks all possess some property. A few are rich, and the whole are distinguished by an extravagant passion for dress.

The people of the United States carried on a most lucrative trade with Honduras; as their flour, salt fish, potatoes, onions, beef, pork, and lumber of all kinds found a ready sale:—From the 1st January 1806 to the 31st December 1807—49 vessels, measuring 5,966 tons, from the United States, brought full cargoes, and returned with 140,000 feet of mahogany, and a proportionate quantity of dye woods, &c. &c.

A very profitable commerce in cattle is carried on by some of the settlers at Honduras with the Spaniards, who are resident in what is called the *Main*. It is principally conducted by barter,—the Spaniards receiving British manufactures, sugar, rum, &c. in exchange for cattle. It is even said that a profit of three or four hundred per cent. is realized by this traffic. The cattle obtained in this way are either slaughtered or purchased by the cutters of mahogany, to whom they are extremely valuable for the purpose of draught, more especially as they are large and well formed.

The cultivation of the soil forms no part of the leading pursuits of the British settlers at Honduras. The cutting of mahogany and logwood may therefore be considered as their sole occupation. Some of the British wood cutters have placed themselves as high up the river Balize as 200 miles from its entrance. It is navigable the whole length for all the purposes required. Its continuance beyond this distance is not accurately known, but is supposed to be of great extent.

Several of the rivers comprehended within the English limits, abounding with mahogany and logwood, were abandoned at the commencement of the hostilities with Spain, in consequence of the insecurity that might have attended the unprotected settler in his settlement. But happily this danger has ceased to exist.

There are two seasons of the year for cutting mahogany. The first commences at the conclusion of the wet season soon after Christmas, and the other about the middle of the year. At these periods all is activity. The cutting down trees, and the trucking out those that have fallen form the chief employment. Some of the wood is squared on the spot, but this labour is generally suspended until the logs are rafted to the entrance of the different rivers. These rafts consist often of 200 logs, and are floated down the rivers as many miles. But this is an operation not without risk, since, when the floods are unusually rapid, it very frequently happens that the labour of a season, or perhaps of many, is at once lost by the whole of the mahogany being hurried precipitately into the sea by the breaking asunder of the rafts.

The gangs of negro labourers employed in this work consist of from ten to fifty each. By dividing large bodies into smaller ones labour is greatly facilitated. Each body of negroes is headed by one of the most intelligent of their number styled the *hunter*, whose province it is to search the woods, in order to find labour for the whole. Negroes so qualified are not seldom valued at £500 sterling. The duty of the hunter commences generally about the 1st of August. He cuts his way through the woods to the highest places, and with a view to survey the country round he climbs the loftiest tree he can find, by which he discovers the spots where the mahogany is most abundant, and where it can be procured at the least expence. The first discoverer is of course entitled to the property, but it frequently happens that others participate in the benefit.

The mahogany tree is generally cut about twelve feet from the ground, and a stage is erected for the axe-man employed in levelling it. The body of the tree from the quantity of wood it furnishes is deemed the most valuable; but the branches or limbs are generally preferred, in consequence of the grain being closer, and the veins more rich and variegated. The last day of cutting is a day of great festivity and merriment, since it affords an interval of leisure, which they employ in the improvement of their dwellings, or rather huts, composed only of a few sticks and leaves, that of the master being seldom better. Others during this season of leisure search the woods for game, in which they are generally very successful, while the more ingenious of the negroes make a variety of small articles for domestic use from the less valuable mahogany, which are disposed of on their return either as presents to their wives or for sale.

The mahogany tree is seldom found in clusters or groups, but single and frequently much dispersed, insomuch that what is considered a cutting station extends often several miles. The growth of this tree is less rapid than the logwood, which is said to reach its maturity in five years.

The logs of mahogany are generally brought on trucks drawn by cattle from the woods to the margin of the river. When the distance is great the labour is expensive, tedious, and difficult. As soon as a sufficient number to form a raft is collected, and the waters have gained the necessary height, they are singly thrown from the banks, and require no other aid or guidance than the force of the current to float them to the booms,

which are large cables placed across the rivers at the different eddies or falls. Here they are once more collected, each proprietor claiming his own from the general stock, which are then formed into separate rafts for their final destination.

To instance an extreme case, as to the profit on mahogany, a single log has been found to contain 12,000 superficial feet, which at the British market has produced one thousand pounds sterling; but many instances of opposite advantage may be adduced. The heavy expence in the purchase, feeding, and clothing a number of negro labourers, which every settler must incur, added to that of the cattle, tools, and furniture he must supply, with a variety of miscellaneous disbursements, and occasional losses of the timber by the breaking of the rafts, are material drawbacks, which greatly reduce the profit; the negroes being well fed, and being allowed pork, flour, rum, sugar, and tobacco, and two suits of working clothes with shoes, and medical attendance, and 3s. 4d. a day in money for Saturdays; the whole amounts to about £25 14s. sterling for each labourer.

The cutting of logwood is considered as a minor pursuit, and is generally carried on by persons in early life; because it requires little capital to carry it on beyond industry, and the possession of a few negro labourers and some cattle. It seldom happens that logwood and mahogany are found in the neighbourhood of each other. Logwood is only procured in low swampy soils, or on the margins of fresh water lakes and creeks, where the *root*, which is the only part of the tree that is valuable, spreads to a great extent. From its being a kind of aquatic production, found in stagnated situations, the labour employed in procuring it is not only unpleasant, but also unhealthy.

GOVERNMENT OF HONDURAS.

In the year 1779 a code of laws or regulations was formed for the British settlers at Honduras by Captain, afterwards Sir William Barnaby. These still retain the name of their founder, and have been always considered the fundamental or statute law of the settlement. It contains little more than what is adapted to society in its most contracted state, and could never be intended to embrace any thing connected with a more extensive population, and a growing increase of property. The main object was, that some restraint should be imposed on a description of persons, who before lived without the fear of punishment, and whose irregularities, murders, piracies, and atrocities of every kind were perpetrated with impunity.

The administration of justice at present is vested in a bench of magistrates, consisting of *seven*. These officers are elected annually.—This regulation may not always secure to the community the men best qualified to administer justice.

The office of superintendant of the settlement of Honduras has always been held by a person of military rank, combining the duties of the first civil magistrate with that of

the commandant of the troops; but his powers are frequently questioned, since they emanate from no authority from the supreme government, but merely attach to him as the commander of the forces for the time being.

The courts of Honduras are held three times in each year for the purpose of hearing and determining questions of importance; and other meetings take place occasionally to decide on matters of smaller importance, and to adjust the differences of transient persons.

It is somewhat singular, that it should be contended that from the adjudications of these courts there is no appeal. The settlement has not only become populous, but opulent, and certainly requires some more legitimate establishment for the administration of justice and the protection of property.

REVENUE OF HONDURAS.

The domestic revenue of the settlement is principally drawn from a duty or tax on transient traders, who pay five per cent. on all articles of merchandize. This duty was very productive while the intercourse with the United States remained uninterrupted. On all wines and spirits imported a duty is also levied of 1s. 6d. per gallon, which contributes very considerably to the Honduras treasury.

Licenses to liquor shops, the number of which in Balize, considering its population, is prodigious, £30 each.

Licenses to public retailers of goods, £10.

Tonnage of vessels.—7½d. per ton, and a harbour duty on ships of £3.

Fines for non-performance of the duty of a magistrate when elected £100.

Fines levied by the courts in civil and criminal actions.

The total revenue, arising from these self-created sources, is estimated at seven thousand pounds a year Jamaica currency, which is disposed of at the will and under the direction of the magistrates for the time being. *Surely this state of things cannot have come under the review of his Majesty's Government.* Here are laws framed, taxes imposed, and a government established in a country too where the King's subjects have become opulent, and where the trade carried on is extensive without the shadow of authority from the parent state.

The settlement is estimated to contain 170 whites, 1,000 free blacks and people of colour, and about 3000 negro labourers.

The force contributed by Government for the defence of Honduras, both maritime and military, is highly respectable. The settlers from among themselves have formed a body of militia, comprised chiefly of people of colour and free blacks, including some confidential negro labourers. The settlement can only be attacked by sea. On the land side it is an entire morass for many miles back at most seasons nearly covered with water.

The channel of the river Balize is protected by the guns of a strong fort, lately erected in a singularly commanding situation by a competent engineer, and which is named Fort George in honour of his Majesty.

It has been thought of importance, that a more detailed statement of the British settlement in the bay of Honduras should find a place in this work than is given of the other colonies; because it is less known, and appears to deserve more attention from the facilities it affords in promoting a more extensive and lucrative commerce with the Spanish provinces than had generally been supposed practicable. Under proper regulations, joined to the circumstance of the British settlement being on the continent of South America and in the vicinity of populous countries, yielding valuable productions, considerable advantages may be derived from the disposal of British manufactures, perhaps to a very great extent; while in the adjacent forests an endless variety of timber, some of which is admirably calculated for ship-building, can be procured at a comparatively small expence.

For a statistical account of the value of this settlement, as one of the numerous appendages of the British Empire, the reader is referred to the Table, No. 9, annexed to this Chapter.

BAHAMA ISLANDS.

The Bahama Islands were the first land discovered by Columbus in his adventurous voyage in search of a new world in the West in 1492. They are in number about five hundred, the chief part barren and unproductive, and exhibiting to the view of the mariner on approaching them the greatest possible deformity. They produce some dying woods and *lignum vitæ*, and of late years cotton has been cultivated to some extent; but from the general sterility of the soil it is impossible to render them sufficiently productive (with some very few exceptions) so as to render the produce profitable to the agriculturist.

About the year 1629, a settlement was established by the English in one of the Bahama Islands, called New Providence, before that time quite uninhabited. In 1641 the Spaniards displaced the settlers, burnt their habitations, and murdered the governor; but did not occupy the country themselves. It remained a desert, unoccupied by any nation until 1666, when an attempt was made to establish a new settlement by the English, who abandoned it; and it was not again peopled until about the year 1690, when the proprietors of Carolina sent a small colony, and appointed a governor.

In the year 1703 a French and Spanish army wasted and depopulated the island of New Providence, drove out the English inhabitants, and carried off their negroes, and demolished the fort of Nassau. It remained unnoticed by the British Government, and became the rendezvous and retreat of pirates. In consequence of the House of Lords having

addressed King George I. to replant and again fortify the Bahama Islands, Captain Woods Rodgers was sent as his Majesty's Governor to the island of New Providence, to whom the pirates submitted, accepting at the same time the King's pardon.

In 1731 only five of the Bahama Islands were inhabited. In 1734 there were five hundred white inhabitants in New Providence. In 1776 this island was captured by an American squadron from Philadelphia, commanded by Commodore Hopkins, who immediately departed with the Governor as a prisoner, without leaving behind any garrison. On the 8th of May 1782, this island was surrendered to the Spaniards with all the other Bahama Islands, of which it was the seat of government; but on the 3d April in the following year the Bahamas were again restored to the British Crown by Colonel Devaux, an American Loyalist, who, being informed of the peace, collected a small body of irregular volunteers, and with this force compelled the Spaniards, though far superior in numbers and strongly fortified, to surrender the island.

In 1787 the Port of Nassau in New Providence was declared by Act of Parliament to be a Free Port for the importation and exportation of certain articles enumerated in the 27 Geo. III. cap. 27. In 1792, Sugar and Coffee, the produce of foreign plantations, were permitted to be imported into certain of the Bahama Islands, named in the Act, in foreign vessels, subject to the regulations of the Act, 27 and 30 of the King.

At the termination of the American War, encouragement was held out to the Loyalists, who were proprietors of negroes, to settle in the Bahama Islands for the purpose of cultivating Cotton and other productions adapted to the soil; but their general sterility is such, that no progress has been made beneficial to the proprietors or to the parent state.

A trade to some extent under the Free-port Acts was however for a time carried on with the Spanish Colonies, which occasioned a considerable export of British Manufactures to the port of Nassau, while the inhabitants derived some advantages by fitting out privateers to cruise against the enemy. These adventitious circumstances gave a temporary importance to this island, favoured as it was by local situation in the neighbourhood of the Havannah. But on the other hand, the crops of Cotton failing in the adjacent islands, many of the plantations have been abandoned; and these islands are rapidly losing their population, nor is it likely that their cultivation can ever again be attempted.

Turk's Island however, one of the Bahamas, has experienced a considerable degree of prosperity from its salt works, where numerous vessels from the United States were loaded yearly, while much was exported to British America and other quarters. These works are principally conducted by the inhabitants of Bermuda, who resort to Turk's Island and reside for several months in the year, employing themselves in making salt.

A Custom-house is established in this island, where a duty of 2s. 6d. sterling per ton is levied under the authority of Parliament, yielding a considerable sum yearly. A

respectable town has also been built in the island for the accommodation of the Bermudian Salt Workers, and other individuals and strangers.

Some Salt Works have been established in two or three of the other islands, but to no great extent. In short Salt may be considered as the most productive article of commerce in these islands. An attempt has been made to exhibit a statistical detail of their value, produce, shipping, &c. in the Table, No. 9, annexed to this chapter.

BERMUDAS.

The Bermuda Islands were first discovered by Juan Bermudas, a Spaniard, in 1527; but were not inhabited until 1609, when Sir George Somers and Sir Thomas Gales were shipwrecked there in their voyage to Virginia, where they resided nine months. Having built a ship of the Cedar, which abounded in these islands, they sailed from thence to Virginia. Sir George Somers was a second time driven on these islands, where he died.

The Virginia Company (who, as the first discoverers, claimed the property) sold these Islands to about 120 persons, to whom the king granted a charter; and in the year 1612 one hundred and twenty persons from England settled on the largest island, now called St. George's. These were followed by 500 more in the year 1619; upon which a civil government was established, consisting of a governor and council, and an assembly.

The settlers first planted Tobacco, but it did not answer. The chief subsistence of the inhabitants is by the manufacture of fast sailing ships built of Cedar, which they sell in America and the West Indies, and with which also they carry on trade.

In 1734 the white population of Bermuda was estimated at 5,000. In 1770 Governor Bruere, then commander in chief of the Islands, stated the white population at 6000, and the same number of negroes; but if this were then accurate, they have since diminished. The sea, which surrounds the islands, furnishes abundance of fish, which forms a considerable part of the food of the inhabitants, who support themselves by freighting their vessels and by trading among the West India Islands; but particularly by making Salt at Turk's Island, to which great numbers resort and remain stationary for the greater part of the year.

These islands produce no exportable article worth a name, and are only important to this country, because they would be dangerous in the possession of an enemy. St. George's has long since been made a free-port, with all the privileges possessed by the Port of Nassau and others in the Bahamas; and in 1811 further privileges were granted to Bermudas, in consequence of the war declared against this country by the United States of America. All vessels of every nation, even those of the enemy, carrying produce to these islands, are protected both in the outward and homeward voyage. They

have also been the chief station for our ships of war, and the head-quarters of the Admiral of the fleet employed in these seas in consequence of the American War.

The value of these islands, the shipping, &c. will be found in the statistical Table, No. 9, annexed to this chapter.

CONCLUSION OF THE CHAPTER.

Having thus taken a general view of all the British Islands and Settlements in the West Indies, it only remains to observe that a new era has arrived since the abolition of the Slave Trade, materially altering the state and condition of these islands. The agricultural strength, arising from the black population, has now found its limit; and a limit is through this medium also given to the cultivation of the soil.

Under the present circumstances it is clear to demonstration, that the annual produce of the Sugar Colonies must at least be stationary. It cannot in the nature of things increase, unless the negro population can be kept up by the number of the births exceeding that of the deaths, of which there does not appear to be even the shadow of hope; on the contrary, a retrograde—a diminution may be expected.

In the progress of this work, new lights have been thrown on the subject. It has already been seen, that in Trinidad in the year ending the 31st of December 1811, out of a black population of 21,143 the deaths amounted to $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent—742, and the births only to 533. In Grenada, the diminution has been still greater, since by an official return, made in the year ending the 31st of January 1812, on a black population of 23,602 the deaths were 819, and the births only 339; and in domestic and other labour the deaths were 206 and the births 139, making a decrease upon the whole of 553 after deducting the births. According to this rate of diminution, the slave population would be annihilated in about forty years ‡.

If such should be the scale of diminution, when it is generally understood that the greatest attention is now bestowed in regard to the health and comfort of the negroes,—

‡ The same authentic document shews, that on the 1st of January 1809, there were in Grenada a black population of 26,121

Born in 1809, 522 children.—Died 1529—loss 1,007

Remained the 1st January 1810 25,114

In three years from the 1st January 1810 were born 1,506

26,620

Deaths during the same period 3,018

Remains - 23,602

Decrease in four years 2,519

According to this scale of mortality, the population would be annihilated in less than 40 years 26,121

that a sick hospital makes a part of the establishment of every Sugar Estate, and that medical attendance upon the invalids is constant and regular,—and that in spite of every care and anxiety to preserve what must be considered as a most valuable acquisition to the proprietors of West India property, as the labourers decrease in progression, it follows, that in the same proportion must the cultivation of the Sugar Cane diminish.

Estates which have been abandoned can no longer be cultivated; nor under the present circumstances will it be possible to render these or the other lands not yet occupied in the smallest degree productive to the parent state, unless by the introduction of a white population, whose labour might at least be rendered productive to themselves and to the nation by cultivating the minor staples of Cotton, Coffee, Cocoa, Tobacco, and other smaller articles.

The more this interesting subject is investigated the greater will be found the importance of the conclusions to be drawn from an accurate knowledge of facts. Early and judicious measures, well conceived and prudently executed, may preserve these valuable colonies to the parent state for centuries to come, while delays and procrastination may generate evils, which it may be difficult, if not impracticable afterwards to remedy.

It has been already shewn, that when Barbadoes and St. Christophers were first settled, the cultivation of the soil was conducted entirely by the emigrants from England, who grew rich and flourished before negroes were employed. And had they remained stationary, their dwellings would have been more numerous, and embellishments would have surrounded them, indicating comfort and contentment; which can never prevail under the present system, where the proprietors of estates too often consider the West Indies as a temporary exile, from which they are anxious to remove the moment they acquire property sufficient to enable them to support a certain rank in the parent country.

Eagerly looking forward to this object, they court none of these accessible comforts (according to the practice of the French settlers) which are to be found in the West Indies; but devote their whole attention to those measures alone, which shall enable them as soon as possible to place their property under the management of attornies.

Hence it is, that society is so limited in the British West Indies, and that those advantages which are to be found in social life upon a more extended scale do not exist. To those who must labour with the sweat of their brows in this country for a scanty subsistence, one half the corporeal exertion in a tropical climate would produce the greatest abundance, with the certainty of a surplus in proportion to the industry which would be employed.

Such was the state of the first settlers of Barbadoes, when by their own industry a population of ten thousand found the means of support. In an evil hour the black population was introduced, and from that moment the white inhabitants ceased to labour. They were ashamed to put themselves on a footing with those who were denominated

slaves, and who were considered an inferior order of the creation. They became lazy, idle, and indolent. Poverty of course was the result. The negroes cultivated the great plantations. The general economy of the agricultural labour assumed a new form; and the white population gradually dwindled to half the number.

It will probably be argued, that the nature of the labour is such that none but an African could endure the fatigue in a tropical climate. This may be true in part; it would not however apply to the same extent to the children of a white population born and reared in the country, since the inconvenience of the climate might be remedied by employing an additional number of labourers.

But while the negro population is still so extensive, amounting to upwards of 650,000 in the British West Indies, the labour of the white inhabitants who might be introduced would be of a lighter kind by being confined to the minor staples. It would moreover be *voluntary and uncontrolled labour*, and stimulated by the consideration, that its whole produce *was exclusively their own*,—they would labour with good will; and contemplating the progress of their industry in the different crops upon the ground, the anticipation of an ample return, and a prospect of ultimate independence would give a tranquillity and contentment to the mind, while at the same time it would excite perseverance and promote comfort even under all the disadvantages, which are supposed to attach to a tropical climate.

In the economy of the West India Colonies much yet remains to be done by the Supreme Government. Upon the measures which may be adopted will depend their increase or diminution in value to the proprietors and to the parent state.

✂ In the progress of this work, the Treaty of Peace between the Allied Powers and France having restored Martinique, Guadaloupe, and their Dependencies to that Country; the Danish Islands having also been restored; and on a presumption that the former Dutch Colonies in the West Indies will in like manner return to the Sovereign Prince of the Netherlands;—no notice is taken of them, except in the Tables, which had been formed and printed six months ago. These Tables however will be in a certain degree of importance, since they will exhibit to all Europe the generosity and liberality of this Country, enhanced by a knowledge of the value of the sacrifices, which have been made to obtain an advantageous Peace, and a restoration of the territories of the Continental Powers, without any equivalent or return to the United Kingdom.

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF THE PRODUCTIONS OF THE BRITISH WEST INDIA COLONIES;

Shewing the Quantity and Value of all Articles raised in every British West India Colony, and distinguishing the Quantity and Value of the principal Articles actually exported to the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and to all other Parts including the Consumption in each Colony, on an average of years.—From Authentic Documents, and the best accessible information where no Documents exist. (1812.)

	QUANTITY.						VALUE.			NOTE.—The Principal Productions are estimated as follows:—
	Sugar.	Rum.	Melasscs.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Pimento.	Estimated Value of the preceding Articles.	Estimated Value of Miscellaneous Articles, including Cattle, Esculents, and Fruits.	Total.	
	Hhds. of 14 cwt.	Punch. of 110 gals.	Casks of 80 gals.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	£	£	£	
Jamaica . . .	135,592	73,263	518	29,528,275	150,000	2,680,604	5,170,803	5,998,858	11,169,661	Jamaica Rum 2s. 6d. per Gallon.
Barbadoes . .	15,237	5,540	1,425	64,496	1,453,738	..	449,477	821,386	1,270,863	Other Islands idem 2s. per Gallon.
Antigua . . .	13,625	5,683	74	19,480	39,880	..	389,740	508,480	898,220	Sugar 34s. per Cwt.
St. Christopher's	10,530	5,265	102	30,232	26,853	..	311,642	441,886	753,528	Coffee 7d. per Pound.
Nevis . . .	4,513	1,755	89	13,000	11,160	..	128,580	246,602	375,182	Melasses 20s. per Cwt.
Montserrat . .	3,058	1,647	75	..	48,312	..	93,609	117,551	211,160	Cotton 9d. per Pound.
Virgin Islands	2,822	1,234	25	2,000	53,260	..	83,093	118,029	201,122	Pimento 6d. per Pound.
Grenada . . .	16,753	11,825	322	143,576	832,518	..	568,067	367,715	935,782	And all other Articles in proportion.
St. Vincent . .	17,491	7,658	2,718	8,740	208,690	..	541,220	270,861	812,081	
Dominica . . .	3,809	576	210	3,285,150	970,816	..	231,733	330,125	561,858	
Trinidad . . .	11,800	3,879	4,062	276,243	159,136	..	386,278	348,739	735,017	
Bahamas . . .	..	..	..	..	1,348,828	..	50,581	219,225	269,806	
Bermudas . . .	..	..	..	..	9,095	..	341	*175,219	175,560	
Honduras . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	§146,700	146,700	
Totals	233,230	118,325	9,620	33,371,192	5,212,287	2,680,604	8,405,164	10,111,376	18,516,540	

Exports to Great Britain and Ireland.							Exports to all other Parts, including the Consumption in each Colony.						
QUANTITY.				VALUE.			QUANTITY.			VALUE.			
Sugar.	Rum.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Estimated Value of the preceding Articles.	Estimated Value of Miscellaneous Articles, including Cattle, Esculents, and Fruits.	Total.	Sugar.	Rum.	Coffee.	Estimated Value of the preceding Articles.	Estimated Value of Miscellaneous Articles, including Cattle, Esculents, and Fruits.	Ttal.	
Hhds. of 14 cwt.	Punch. of 110 gals.	Pounds.	Pounds.	£	£	£	Hhds. of 14 cwt.	Punch. of 110 gals.	Pounds.	£	£	£	
Jamaica . .	130,872	38,893	28,385,395	150,000	4,479,315	2,406,024	6,885,339	4,720	34,370	1,142,880	618,257	3,666,065	4,284,322
Barbadoes . .	12,487	146	34,496	1,453,738	354,318	143,922	498,240	750	5,394	30 000	78,059	694,564	772,623
Antigua . .	13,282	1,409	. . .	39,880	333,106	123,627	456,733	343	4,274	19,480	55,746	385,741	441,487
St. Christopher's	10,202	3,012	15,232	26,853	277,391	128,387	405,778	328	2,253	15,000	33,027	314,723	347,750
Nevis . . .	4,348	1,022	2,240	11,160	115,208	87,101	202,309	165	733	10,760	12,304	160,569	172,873
Montserrat . .	2,937	680	. . .	48,313	79,192	20,747	99,939	121	967	. .	13,517	97,704	111,221
Virgin Islands	2,742	175	. . .	53,260	69,182	20,583	89,765	80	1,059	2,000	13,611	97,746	111,357
Grenada . . .	15,081	7,245	133,616	832,518	473,739	50,186	523,925	1,672	4,580	9,960	90,464	321,393	411,857
St. Vincent . .	15,751	3,643	6,740	208,690	422,969	49,846	472,815	1,740	4,015	2,000	85,635	253,631	339,266
Dominica . .	3,503	86	3,033,650	970,816	209,205	34,362	243,567	306	490	251,500	20,008	298,283	318,291
Trinidad . .	11,133	1,589	260,243	159,136	296,002	65,596	361,598	667	2,290	16,000	41,531	331,888	373,419
Bahamas . .	. .	. .	. . .	1,348,828	50,581	22,995	73,576	. .	. .	. .	. . .	196,230	196,230
Bermudas . .	. .	. .	. . .	9,095	341	23,219	23,560	. .	. .	. .	. . .	*152,000	152,000
Honduras . .	. .	. .	. . .	. .	. . .	§50,000	50,000	. .	. .	. .	. . .	§96,700	96,700
Totals	222,338	57,900	31,871,612	5,212,287	7,160,549	3,226,595	10,387,144	10,892	60,425	1,499,580	1,062,159	7,067,237	8,129,396

AGGREGATE VALUE		SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.	
OF THE PRODUCTIONS OF EACH COLONY.		QUANTITY.	
Annual Average.		VALUE.	
Jamaica . . .	£11,169,661	Sugar.—233,230 Hogsheads of 14 cwt.	£5,550,874
Barbadoes . .	1,270,863	Rum.—118,325 Puncheons of 110 Gallons.	1,503,048
Antigua . . .	898,220	Melasses.—9,620 Casks of 80 Gallons, or 12 Cwt.	115,440
St. Christopher's	753,528	Coffee.—33,371,192 Pounds.	973,326
Nevis . . .	375,182	Cotton.—5,212,287 Pounds.	195,461
Montserrat . .	211,160	Pimento.—2,680,604 Pounds.	67,015
Virgin Islands	201,122		
Grenada . . .	935,782	EXPORTS.	
St. Vincent . .	812,081	Estimated Value of Exports to Great Britain and Ireland.	Estimated Value of Exports to all other Parts, including the Consumption of each Colony.
Dominica . . .	561,858	Sugar	£5,291,644
Trinidad . . .	735,017	Rum	743,856
Bahamas . . .	269,806	Coffee	929,589
Bermudas . . .	175,560	Cotton	195,460
Honduras . . .	146,700	Miscellaneous Articles	3,226,595
	£18,516,540	Totals	£10,387,144
			£8,129,396

† A very considerable part of the Cotton exported from Jamaica is imported at the Free-Ports from the Foreign Colonies: it is supposed that not more than 50,000 Pounds are the growth of Jamaica, being chiefly, if not all produced in the Parish of Vere in that Island.
 * Principally Cedar, an immense quantity of which is used in Ship-building.
 § Mahogany, Logwood, &c.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE OF THE BRITISH AND CONQUERED WEST INDIA COLONIES;

Shewing the Population, Number of Acres of Land Cultivated and Uncultivated, Colonial Shipping, Value of Productions raised, Exports and Imports, Circulating Specie; and an Estimate of the Amount of Public and Private Property, exhibiting the Value of each Colony.—From authentic Documents, and the best accessible information where no Document exists. (1812.)

BRITISH WEST INDIA COLONIES.

POWER AND RESOURCES.

	POPULATION. (A)			LANDS. (B)		Colonial Shipping. (C)	Estimated Value of Productions raised annually including Cattle, &c. Esculents and Fruits. (D)	Estimated Value of Exports to the United Kingdom.	Estimated Value of Exports to all other Parts.	Estimated Value of Imports from the United Kingdom.	Estimated Value of Imports from all other Parts.
	White Persons.	Free Persons of Colour.	Negro Labourers.	Cultivated.	Uncultivated.						
				Acres.	Acres.	Tons.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Jamaica	30,000	10,000	350,000	809,450	1,914,812	3,503	11,169,661	6,885,339	* 384,322	3,685,726	* 892,207
Barbadoes	15,000	3,000	59,506	101,470	5,000	700	1,270,863	498,240	50,563	434,555	165,186
Antigua	3,200	1,400	36,000	44,838	15,000	2,000	898,220	456,733	35,487	291,827	92,881
St. Christopher's	1,200	500	30,000	30,126	13,600	600	753,528	405,778	30,750	142,979	72,520
Nevis	500	250	15,000	15,000	6,000	300	375,182	202,309	15,373	58,822	35,471
Montserrat	444	200	10,000	12,000	9,000	120	211,160	99,939	4,781	46,906	24,350
Virgin Islands	300	400	10,000	12,000	9,000	200	201,122	89,765	4,357	50,579	26,537
Grenada	800	1,600	32,603	50,000	30,000	2,600	935,782	523,925	41,857	277,386	98,371
St. Vincent	1,280	1,172	27,156	50,000	54,286	2,900	812,081	472,815	43,186	154,995	42,093
Dominica	800	1,500	24,000	86,436	100,000	500	561,858	243,567	15,291	63,498	33,943
Trinidad	2,700	8,559	21,831	27,275	¶ 1,500,000	1,000	735,017	561,598	* 22,519	571,317	* 75,701
Bahamas	3,600	3,300	10,000	‡ 50,000	‡ 150,000	3,000	269,806	73,576	27,230	117,395	38,662
Bermudas	5,000	200	5,000	§ 12,500	§	3,000	175,560	23,560	50,000	58,581	23,335
Honduras	170	1,000	3,000	§	§	480	146,700	50,000	75,000	25,374	9,539
Totals	64,994	33,081	634,096	1,301,095	3,806,698	20,003	£18,516,540	10,387,144	800,716	5,979,940	1,630,796

VALUE.

	PUBLIC PROPERTY		PRIVATE PROPERTY.							TOTAL.
	Estimated Value of Forts, Barracks, Arsenals, Artillery, Dock-yards, and all public Buildings (E)	Estimated Value of Negro Labourers. (F)	Estimated Value of Lands. (G)		Estimated Value of Buildings, Utensils, &c on Estates. (H)	Estimated Value of all kinds of Stock on Estates. (I)	Estimated Value of Houses, Stores, Merchandize and Furniture in the Towns. (K)	Estimated Value of Colonial Shipping. (L)	Estimated Amount of Gold and Silver Coin in Circulation. (M)	
			Cultivated	Uncultivated						
£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	
Jamaica	1,000,000	19,250,000	16,189,000	1,914,812	12,709,450	4,800,000	2,000,000	42,036	220,000	58,125,298
Barbadoes	460,000	3,272,830	2,029,400	5,000	1,644,000	660,000	930,000	8,400	80,000	9,089,630
Antigua	350,000	1,980,000	896,760	15,000	600,000	283,240	200,000	24,000	15,000	4,364,000
St. Christopher's	480,000	1,650,000	602,500	13,600	500,000	273,500	250,000	7,200	7,000	3,783,800
Nevis	8,000	825,000	300,000	6,000	280,000	174,000	150,000	3,600	3,500	1,750,100
Montserrat		550,000	240,000	9,000	150,000	70,000	60,000	1,440	7,000	1,087,440
Virgin Islands	5,000	550,000	240,000	9,000	150,000	70,000	60,000	2,400	7,000	1,093,400
Grenada	350,000	1,793,165	1,000,000	30,000	890,000	440,000	450,000	31,200	10,000	4,994,365
St. Vincent	90,000	1,493,580	1,000,000	54,286	680,000	390,000	250,000	24,000	25,000	4,006,866
Dominica	150,000	1,320,000	864,360	50,000	305,640	130,000	200,000	6,000	30,000	3,056,000
Trinidad	150,000	1,200,705	545,500	1,500,000	500,000	260,000	754,500	12,000	10,000	4,932,705
Bahamas	80,000	550,000	200,000	37,500	50,000	60,000	1,000,000	36,000	28,000	2,041,500
Bermudas	20,000	275,000	§ 250,000			20,000	500,000	36,000	10,000	1,111,000
Honduras	50,000	165,000			100,000		250,000	5,760	8,000	578,760
Totals	£ 3,193,000	34,875,280	24,357,520	3,644,198	18,559,090	7,630,740	7,054,500	240,036	460,500	100,014,864

AGGREGATE VALUE OF EACH COLONY.

	£ Sterling.
Jamaica	58,125,298
Barbadoes	9,089,630
Antigua	4,364,000
St. Christopher's	3,783,800
Nevis	1,750,100
Montserrat	1,087,440
Virgin Islands	1,093,400
Grenada	4,994,365
St. Vincent	4,006,866
Dominica	5,056,000
Trinidad	4,932,705
Bahamas	2,041,500
Bermudas	1,111,000
Honduras	578,760
Totals	£100,014,864

Population.— 64,994 White Persons.
33,081 Free Persons of Colour.
634,096 Negro Labourers.

Total . . . 732,171

Lands.— 1,301,095 Acres Cultivated.
3,806,698 Idem Uncultivated.

Colonial Shipping.—20,003 Tons.
Estimated Value of Productions raised annually including Cattle, &c. £18,516,540

Estimated Value of Exports, viz.
To the United Kingdom . . . £ 10,387,144
To all other Parts 800,716
Total . . . £ 11,187,860

Estimated Value of Imports, viz.
From the United Kingdom . . . £ 5,979,940
From all other Parts 1,630,796
Total . . . £ 7,610,736

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

PUBLIC PROPERTY.

Estimated Value of Forts, Barracks, Arsenals, Artillery, Dock-Yards, and all Public Buildings £ 3,193,000

PRIVATE PROPERTY.

Estimated Value of Lands, viz. Cultivated . . . £24,357,520
Uncultivated || 3,644,198

£28,001,718

Estimated Value of Negro Labourers 34,875,280
Idem . . Idem. Buildings, Utensils, &c. on Estates 18,559,090
Idem . . Idem. all kinds of Stock on Estates . . . 7,630,740
Idem . . Idem. Houses, Stores, Merchandize, and Furniture in the Towns 7,054,500
Estimated Value of Colonial Shipping 240,036
Idem. Amount of Gold and Silver Coin in circulation . 460,500

— 96,821,864

Grand Total £100,014,864

¶ It is presumed that a considerable part of the uncultivated lands belongs to the Crown.

* Exclusive of a valuable trade (of which no estimate can be formed) which is carried on between several of these Colonies, particularly Jamaica and Trinidad, and the Spanish West India Colonies.

‡ About 150,000 acres were formerly in cultivation, of which two-thirds have been abandoned, leaving about 50,000 acres at present in cultivation. The uncultivated and perfectly barren may probably not exceed 150,000 acres.

¶ Of which 147,548 acres have been granted.

§ Chiefly in Cedar Plantations.

¶ See page 378.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE OF THE BRITISH AND CONQUERED WEST INDIA COLONIES ;

Shewing the Population, number of Acres of Land cultivated and uncultivated, Colonial Shipping, Value of Productions raised, Exports and Imports, Circulating Specie ; and an Estimate of the amount of Public and Private Property, exhibiting the Value of each Colony.—From Authentic Documents, and the best accessible information where no Document exists. (1812.)

CONQUERED WEST INDIA COLONIES.

POWER AND RESOURCES.

	POPULATION (A)			LANDS (B)		Colonial Shipping. (C)	Estimated Value of Productions raised annually, including Cattle, &c. Esculents and Fruits. (D)	Estimated Value of Exports to the United Kingdom.	Estimated Value of Exports to all other Parts.	Estimated Value of Imports from the United Kingdom.	Estimated Value of Imports from all other Parts.
	White Persons.	Free Persons of Colour.	Negro Labourers.	Cultivated.	Uncultivated.						
				Acres.	Acres.	Tons.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Tobago	470	250	17,000	40,000	60,000	660	516,532	321,870	17,462	113,259	23,638
St. Lucia	500	350	24,000	35,000	60,000	2,000	595,610	309,989	25,621	71,363	29,541
St. Martin's	350	250	3,500	12,000	30,000	300	46,615	1,575	4,040	741	5,039
Martinique	10,000	6,000	54,000	216,000	700,000	2,500	1,785,923	1,016,943	68,980	596,543	173,492
Guadaloupe	12,500	7,500	67,500	260,000	900,000	3,000	1,803,384	842,158	86,226	467,157	159,275
Mariegalante	400	800	8,000	12,000	20,000	500	113,597	12,531	9,066	5,496	3,143
Surinam	3,186	2,889	60,000	400,000	<i>ad infinitum</i>	2,000	1,520,957	795,094	65,113	390,716	137,451
Berbice	1,000	600	25,000	300,000	<i>Idem.</i>	1,680	629,461	306,490	28,971	93,468	35,149
Demarara and Essequibo	4,000	2,500	70,000	800,000	<i>Idem.</i>	5,040	2,238,529	1,245,446	89,083	311,571	104,672
Curaçoa	400	2,000	5,000	30,000	50,000	2,250	19,457	12,165	7,292	157,916	12,315
St. Eustatia	100	250	1,800	8,000	12,000	200	26,112	2,494	2,118	1,562	642
St. Croix	2,223	1,164	28,000	45,000	40,000	720	729,473	384,673	30,930	79,317	51,215
St. Thomas	550	1,500	3,000	5,000	7,000	900	21,976	† 95,543	† 11,233	* 213,453	* 23,424
St. John's	150	200	6,000	5,000	3,000	250	148,300	§	§	§	§
Totals	35,829	26,253	372,800	2,168,000	<i>ad infinitum.</i>	22,000	10,195,926	5,346,971	446,135	2,502,562	758,996

VALUE.

	PUBLIC PROPERTY		PRIVATE PROPERTY.								TOTAL.
	Estimated Value of Forts, Barracks, Arsenals, Artillery, Dock Yards, and all Public Buildings. (E)	Estimated Value of Negro Labourers. (F)	Estimated Value of Lands (G)		Estimated Value of Buildings, Utensils, &c on Estates. (H)	Estimated Value of all kinds of Stock on Estates (I)	Estimated Value of Houses, Stores, Merchandize, and Furniture, in the Towns. (K)	Estimated Value of Colonial Shipping. (L)	Estimated Amount of Gold and Silver Coin in Circulation (M)		
			Cultivated.	Uncultivated†							
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£. (H)	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	
Tobago	80,000	935,000	800,000	60,000	450,000	180,000	150,000	7,920	20,000	2,682,920	
St. Lucia	80,000	1,320,000	525,000	60,000	280,000	100,000	120,000	24,000	20,000	2,529,000	
St. Martins	20,000	192,500	60,000	15,000	20,000	8,000	40,000	3,600	3,000	362,100	
Martinique	700,000	2,970,000	3,240,000	700,000	1,600,000	600,000	1,200,000	30,000	50,000	11,090,000	
Guadaloupe	700,000	3,712,500	3,900,000	900,000	2,000,000	800,000	1,500,000	36,000	62,500	13,611,000	
Mariegalante	20,000	440,000	180,000	20,000	50,000	20,000	30,000	6,000	7,000	773,000	
Surinam	400,000	3,300,000	6,000,000	<i>ad infinitum.</i>	1,000,000	400,000	600,000	24,000	5,000	11,729,000	
Berbice	200,000	1,375,000	4,500,000	<i>Idem.</i>	800,000	300,000	200,000	20,160	20,000	7,415,160	
Demarara and Essequibo	300,000	3,850,000	12,000,000	<i>Idem.</i>	1,200,000	500,000	400,000	60,480	100,000	18,410,480	
Curaçoa	150,000	275,000	300,000	25,000	100,000	50,000	200,000	27,000	60,000	1,187,000	
St. Eustatia	20,000	99,000	120,000	12,000	80,000	40,000	40,000	2,400	2,500	415,900	
St. Croix	200,000	1,540,000	900,000	40,000	500,000	200,000	300,000	8,640	40,000	3,728,640	
St. Thomas	100,000	165,000	100,000	7,000	60,000	25,000	200,000	10,800	80,000	747,800	
St. John's	..	330,000	100,000	3,000	70,000	30,000	..	3,000	2,000	538,000	
Totals £	2,970,000	20,504,000	32,725,000	1,842,000	8,210,000	3,253,000	4,980,000	264,000	472,000	75,220,000	

AGGREGATE VALUE OF EACH COLONY.

Tobago	£ Sterling 2,682,920
St. Lucia	2,529,000
St. Martins	362,100
Martinique	11,090,000
Guadaloupe	13,611,000
Mariegalante	773,000
Surinam	11,729,000
Berbice	7,415,160
Demarara and Essequibo	18,410,480
Curaçoa	1,187,000
St. Eustatia	415,900
St. Croix	3,728,640
St. Thomas	747,800
St. John's	538,000
Total	£75,220,000

Population.—35,829 White Persons.
26,253 Free Persons of Colour.
372,800 Negro Labourers.

Total 434,882

Lands.—2,168,000 Acres cultivated.
Ad infinitum Idem uncultivated.
Colonial Shipping.—22,000 Tons.
Estimated Value of Productions raised annually, including Esculents and Fruits £10,195,926

Estimated Value of Exports, viz.
To the United Kingdom - - £5,346,971
To all other parts - - - 446,135
Total - - £5,793,106

Estimated Value of Imports, viz.
From the United Kingdom - - 2,502,562
From all other Parts - - - 758,996
Total - - £3,261,558

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

PUBLIC PROPERTY.

Estimated Value of Forts, Barracks, Arsenals, Artillery, Dock-yards, and all Public Buildings £ 2,970,000

PRIVATE PROPERTY.

Estimated Value of Lands, viz. Cultivated . £32,725,000
Uncultivated † 1,842,000
£ 34,567,000
Estimated Value of Negro Labourers 20,504,000
Idem Idem Buildings, Utensils, &c. on Estates 8,210,000
Idem Idem all kinds of Stock on Estates 3,253,000
Idem Idem Houses, Stores, Merchandize, and Furniture in the Towns 4,980,000
Estimated Value of Colonial Shipping 264,000
Idem . . . Gold and Silver Coin in Circulation 472,000
Grand Total £ 75,220,000

† A considerable part of which is supposed to be Crown Lands.

* Including the Imports of St. John's.

§ The Exports and Imports of St. John's are included in the amount respectively stated for St. Thomas, which is the Port or Place of Shipping for transportation for St. John's.

|| Exclusive of Land *ad infinitum* uncultivated on the Continent of South America.

† Including the Exports of St. John's, which is a Dependency of St. Thomas.

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

- (A) — We have the number of whites and free persons of colour in Jamaica from several gentlemen of great respectability, who have long resided there, and who agree in opinion as to the number of each stated in the Table; and the number of negroes from the evidence of Mr. Mitchell before a Committee of the House of Commons in July 1807, on the commercial state of the West India Colonies. The population of St. Vincent, Grenada, and Trinidad, is stated according to a Census of the inhabitants, and where no Census has been taken, on the authority of gentlemen of the greatest respectability and veracity, who have long resided on the spot. Bermudas, according to the governor, contains about an equal number of white and coloured persons.
- (B) — In stating the lands in Jamaica, both cultivated and uncultivated, we have followed the latest survey taken by Mr. Robertson. Those in St. Vincent are also from a recent survey. An official account during Lord Seaforth's government is our authority for the number of acres cultivated in Barbadoes, which is supposed to have varied very little, if at all, since that period. And with respect to the other colonies, we have partly consulted Mr. Edwards' History of the West Indies and other later writers, and partly gentlemen, who have for a considerable number of years resided in the islands respectively.
- (C) — The Tonnage of Vessels employed in the coast trade of Jamaica is according to an account laid before the House of Assembly for the year ended the 30th of September 1810. The Tonnage of Vessels belonging to the other Colonies is stated from the best information that could be obtained on the subject.
- (D) — It is deemed fair to estimate the whole consumption, as Plantains, Yams, Indian and Guinea Corn, Grass, Fruits, Cattle, Sheep, Hogs, Poultry, &c. at an average of £10 a head per annum, for the whole population, excepting Curaçoa and St. Thomas which produce nothing, the former being dependent upon Aruba and Bonaire, and the latter chiefly upon Porto Rico for articles of subsistence. To this average value of articles consumed is to be added the amount of the surplus commodities exported, together constituting the value of all productions raised in each Colony.
- (E) — With respect to the value of all Works of Defence and Public Buildings in each Colony, all that can be expected is an approximation to their real worth; and this estimate even has not been formed without the maturest consideration, being considerably below their real value, and in general below what they cost.
- (F) — Mr. Bryan Edwards and Sir William Young estimated negroes at £50 each; their value has however since greatly increased, particularly since the abolition of the Slave Trade. Averaged, they cannot now be worth less than £55.
- (G) — The Lands are estimated as follows:—
- | | |
|---|--|
| Land in a high state of Cultivation in the Sugar Colonies averaged at £20 per acre. | The best Land not cleared and not in a state of cultivation £1 per acre. |
| Idem . . producing Coffee and Provisions Idem . . £10 per Idem. | Land of a medium quality Idem 10s. Idem. |
| Idem . . yielding Cotton and other inferior articles . . Idem . . £4 per Idem. | Inferior Land Idem 5s. Idem. |
- (H) — In estimating the Buildings, Utensils, &c. on Estates, we have chiefly availed ourselves of Mr. Bryan Edwards' experience and knowledge of the Agricultural concerns of the West Indies, assisted by information from some intelligent Proprietors of Estates who have long resided on the spot. This article is taken as follows:—
- | | |
|---|--|
| Buildings of every description, Utensils, &c. on Sugar Estates, including the Proprietors Dwellings, at about two-thirds the Value of the Lands | |
| Idem Idem on Coffee Settlements about one-third . . Idem. Idem. | |
| Idem Idem on Cotton and other Settlements about one-fifth . . Idem. Idem. | |
- (I) — According to Mr. Edwards, the Stock on Sugar Estates may be estimated at somewhat more than one-third the Value of the Buildings (for which, see the preceding article) and the Stock on Coffee, Cotton, and other Settlements in proportion.
- (K) — Mr. Edwards, in his History of the West Indies, estimates the Houses and other property in the Towns of Jamaica at £1,500,000. From the best local information we have been able to obtain as to their present value, all kinds of property having materially increased in value since Mr. Edwards wrote, we should conceive the Estimate for Jamaica may be fairly taken at £2,000,000, and other Colonies in proportion.
- (L) — The Colonial Shipping, that is, Vessels registered at and belonging to the Colonies respectively, are estimated at the very moderate average of £12 Sterling per Ton.
- (M) — Money is become so much an article of Merchandize, that it is almost impossible to ascertain the circulating medium. We learn from good authority, that a sum exceeding £200,000 currency in money is annually paid into the Colonial Chest of Jamaica for public and parochial Taxes and Assessments, and that the amount of circulating Gold and Silver Coin fluctuates, there being sometimes a considerable sum and sometimes very little in circulation. It is assumed that about £220,000 sterling are generally circulating in Jamaica, exclusive of the remittances to this country. The circulating medium of the other colonies is by no means in proportion. In Trinidad, where the prevalence of carrying money off the Island had extended so far as to leave in circulation little more than the smallest coins, the Legislative Council passed an order by which 25,000 dollars have been so mutilated as to be rendered useless elsewhere; the whole of the coins in this Island may possibly amount to £10,000 sterling.

AGGREGATE VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE OF THE BRITISH AND CONQUERED WEST INDIA COLONIES;

Shewing the Population, Number of Acres of Land cultivated and uncultivated, Colonial Shipping, Value of Productions raised, Exports and Imports, Circulating Specie; and an Estimate of the Amount of Public and Private Property; distinguishing the British and Conquered Colonies.—From Authentic Documents, and the best accessible Information where no Document exists. (1812.)

POWER AND RESOURCES.

	Population.			Lands.		Colonial Shipping.	Estimated Value of Productions raised annually, including Cattle, &c. Esculents and Fruits.	Estimated Value of Exports to the United Kingdom.	Estimated Value of Exports to all other Parts.	Estimated Value of Imports from the United Kingdom.	Estimated Value of Imports from all other Parts.
	White Persons.	Free Persons of Colour.	Negro Labourers.	Cultivated.	Uncultivated.						
				Acres.	Acres.	Tons.	£	£	£	£	£
BRITISH WEST INDIA COLONIES.*	64,994	33,081	634,096	1,301,095	3,806,698	20,003	18,516,540	10,387,144	800,716	5,979,940	1,630,796
CONQUERED WEST INDIA COLONIES.†											
French	24,220	15,150	174,000	575,000	1,770,000	8,960	4,861,661	2,505,066	211,395	1,254,559	394,128
Dutch	8,686	8,239	161,800	1,538,000	<i>ad infinitum</i>	11,170	4,434,516	2,561,689	192,577	955,233	290,229
Danish	2,923	2,864	37,000	55,000	50,000	1,870	899,749	480,216	42,163	292,770	74,639
Totals	100,823	59,334	1,006,896	3,469,095	<i>ad infinitum</i>	42,003	28,712,466	15,734,115	1,246,851	8,482,502	2,389,792

VALUE.

	PUBLIC PROPERTY.		PRIVATE PROPERTY.							TOTAL
	Estimated Value of Forts, Barracks, Arsenals, Artillery, Dock-yards, and all Public Buildings.	Estimated Value of Negro Labourers.	Estimated Value of Lands.		Estimated Value of Buildings, Utensils, &c. on Estates.	Estimated Value of all kinds of Stock on Estates.	Estimated Value of Houses, Stores, Merchandize, and Furniture in the Towns.	Estimated Value of Colonial Shipping.	Estimated Amount of Gold and Silver Coin in Circulation.	
	£	£	Cultivated.	Uncultivated.	£	£	£	£	£	£
BRITISH WEST INDIA COLONIES.*	3,193,000	34,875,280	24,357,520	3,644,198	18,559,090	7,630,740	7,054,500	240,036	460,500	100,014,864
CONQUERED WEST INDIA COLONIES.†										
French	1,600,000	9,570,000	8,705,000	1,755,000	4,400,000	1,708,000	3,040,000	107,520	162,500	31,048,020
Dutch	1,070,000	8,899,000	22,920,000	†37,000	3,180,000	1,290,000	1,440,000	134,040	187,500	39,157,540
Danish	300,000	2,035,000	1,100,000	50,000	630,000	255,000	500,000	22,440	122,000	5,014,440
Totals	£6,163,000	55,379,280	57,082,520	5,486,198	26,769,090	10,883,740	12,034,500	504,036	932,500	175,234,864

GENERAL SUMMARY.

AGGREGATE VALUE.

British West India Colonies	£	100,014,864
Conquered Idem Idem, viz.	£	
French	31,048,020	
Dutch	39,157,540	
Danish	5,014,440	75,220,000
	£	175,234,864

Population.—100,823 White Persons.
59,334 Free Persons of Colour.
1,006,896 Negro Labourers.
Total 1,167,053

Lands.—3,469,095 Acres Cultivated.
ad infinitum. Idem Uncultivated.
Colonial Shipping.—42,003 Tons.
Estimated Value of Productions raised annually, including Cattle, &c. Esculents and Fruits . . . £28,712,466
Estimated Value of Exports, viz.
To the United Kingdom . . . £15,734,115
To all other Parts . . . 1,246,851
Total £16,980,966

Estimated Value of Imports, viz.
From the United Kingdom . . . £8,482,502
From all other Parts . . . 2,389,792
Total £10,872,294

PUBLIC PROPERTY.
Estimated Value of Forts, Barracks, Arsenals, Artillery, Dock-yards, and all Public Buildings . . . £6,163,000

PRIVATE PROPERTY.
Estimated Value of Lands, viz. Cultivated £57,082,520
Uncultivated £5,486,198
£62,568,718
Estimated Value of Negro Labourers 55,379,280
Idem Idem Buildings, Utensils, &c., on Estates 26,769,090
Idem Idem all kinds of Stock on Estates 10,883,740
Idem Idem Houses, Stores, Merchandize, and Furniture in the Towns 12,034,500
Estimated Value of Colonial Shipping 504,036
Idem Amount of Gold and Silver Coin in Circulation 932,500
Grand Total £175,234,864

§ It is presumed, that a considerable part of the uncultivated land belongs to the Crown.

* For the Details, see page 379.

† For Idem, see page 380.

† Exclusive of Land *ad infinitum*, uncultivated on the Continent of South America.

CHAPTER XI.

ON THE SETTLEMENTS IN AFRICA, IN THE POSSESSION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Discouragements attending the Settlements under British Dominion in Africa, for the last two Centuries.—The English attempted to establish a Trade with Africa in 1536.—Patent granted by Queen Elizabeth in 1558 to several Merchants, for an exclusive Trade to the Rivers Senegal, Gambia, and Goree, for 10 Years.—Progress of the Trade under three successive Companies in the Reigns of James I. and Charles I.—A fourth Chartered Company, created by Charles II. in 1672.—In 1727 the whole Stock of the Company amounted to £400,000.—Reduced in 1733 to £200,000.—State of their Affairs subsequently.—In 1765 Senegambia formed into a Royal Province, with a Civil Government and Military Establishment.—Trade opened to all British Subjects.—Senegal ceded to France by the Treaty of Paris in 1783.—Captured by the British in the French revolutionary War.—Also the Island of Goree in 1800.—In 1788, River Gambia, Fort James, and other Forts, and Factories vested in a Company of Merchants trading to Africa, but the Trade open to all British Subjects.—Enormous Expence of £1,107,418 incurred for erecting Forts and supporting Civil and Military Establishments in Africa in His present Majesty's Reign, including £211,668 for Sierra Leone, and £4,691 for making Discoveries.—Inconsiderable amount of the Exports and Imports.—Articles imported.—Advantages more than counterbalanced by the immense Expences.—General Reflections on Colonies and Settlements in the same Situation.—Importance of the Cape of Good Hope.—Its Resources,—Climate,—and Productions.—Population.—Dispositions of the different Classes of the Inhabitants described.—Its Revenues.—Trade.—Wines.—Brandies.—Fruits.—Hides and Skins.—Elephant's Teeth,—Hippopotamus, or Sea Cow Skins.—Hemp and Flax.—Ostrich Feathers.—Privileges of a free Port, granting Lands to British Settlers, Cultivation of Coffee, Cotton, and Tobacco, &c. recommended.—Conclusion of the Chapter.—Important Advantages to be derived from making Saldanah the Capital and chief Mart of Commerce, where there is an excellent and secure Port for Shipping, instead of the Cape, which has no good Harbour, and which is destitute of almost every other requisite for carrying on Trade.

ALL the sanguine expectations, with respect to the Settlements under British dominion in Africa, which had from time to time been entertained for the last two centuries, have been heretofore disappointed.

Early in the year 1536, the English first attempted to establish a trade with this country, which had hitherto been almost wholly monopolized by the Portuguese. In 1558

Queen Elizabeth granted a patent to several merchants of London and Exeter, to carry on an exclusive trade, for 10 years, to the rivers Senegal, Gambia, and Goree, but with what success is uncertain; there is, however, reason to suppose that the adventurers were not very fortunate, since no further attempt was made until the year 1618, when James I. granted a charter to Sir Robert Rich and others to trade to Guinea. In 1631, Charles I. created a second company, by a charter granted to Sir Richard Young, Sir Kington Digby, and others, to trade to Africa and the Cape of Good Hope for 34 years. In the reign of Charles II. Admiral Holmes erected a fort at the mouth of the river Senegambia.

The three former African Companies being ruined, it appears that in the year 1672, a fourth and last Chartered Company was created by Charles II. The old Company were allowed £34,000 for the three forts they had erected at Cape Coast Castle, Sierra Leone, and James Fort on the river Senegambia.

It appears that in 1711 the affairs of the African Company were in great confusion in consequence of which they were allowed a further time by their creditors to pay their debts. Two years after a bill passed the House of Commons, laying open the African trade; but it was lost in the House of Peers.

In the year 1727 the whole stock of the Company amounted only to £400,000. Parliament had granted the Company £10,000 every year since 1700, to support their forts and factories. In 1732 their stock was reduced to £200,000, and they were unable to discharge their debts. The private traders, who had some time before been permitted to have free commercial intercourse with Africa, uniformly appear to have had the advantage of the joint Stock Company.

In 1764 the Committee of Merchants, who had now the management of the British interests in Africa, were allowed £400 a year in addition to the £800 formerly granted for the support of their establishment. The trade of Senegal being chiefly confined to gum, differing widely from that on other parts of the coast, and several settlements having been made very far up the river, (which is navigable for vessels drawing nine feet water, for 264 miles,) it was deemed impossible that the Committee of African Merchants, a fluctuating body annually elected, could govern that country with propriety.

It was therefore determined by Government, in 1765, that the line of coast lying between Cape Blume and Cape Rouge, including the rivers Senegal and Gambia, should be converted into a royal province, to be called the province of Senegambia, with a civil government and a military establishment. The expences, including an armed sloop and two flat-bottomed boats, to defend the entrance to the rivers, were stated at £120,000 the first year, and £10,000 annually afterwards. By the Act of Parliament, vesting this province in the Crown, the trade of the coast was declared to be open to all British subjects.

In the year 1783, by the Treaty of Paris, Senegal was ceded to France; but this and all the French settlements on the coast of Africa were captured by the British in the course of the French revolutionary war. In 1800 the Island and Fort of Goree, surrendered to the British arms.

In 1788 the river Gambia, with Fort James, and all the other forts and factories in Africa, for the protection of the African trade, (except those ceded to France,) were vested in a Company of Merchants trading to Africa, the trade being open to all British subjects.

In the year 1795 the annual allowance to the African Company was increased to £20,000 per annum. At the same time, £4,069 2s. 0d. were granted to Mr. Willis, to be applied in forming an establishment in Africa, for the purpose of opening a commercial intercourse with the interior parts of the continent. The various attempts, which have been made for this purpose, have hitherto been without the least success; and it is but too apparent from the extreme difficulties, which have been opposed to any profitable trade with the natives of these vast regions, that they have become hopeless.

This country has been struggling (as already observed) for upwards of two centuries, for the purpose of opening a beneficial trade with Africa, during which period an enormous expence has been incurred in erecting forts, and in supporting civil and military establishments. In the course of the present reign, no less than £1,107,418 have been granted for these purposes, including £211,668 for the settlement of Sierra Leone, and £4,691 for making discoveries. And after all the annual importations of the growth and produce of these countries are but trifling, while the articles imported, which cannot average above £100,000 a year, are of such a nature that a larger quantity could not find a market in Europe.*

It is but too evident, that if a debtor and creditor account were to be made of the disbursements by individuals concerned from the beginning in the British African trade, with the immense sums expended by the nation in supporting it against the attacks of the Dutch, French, and Portuguese, even in time of peace, and the enemy in periods of war, with the further expence of the civil establishments, it will be found that the country has upon the whole, sustained a great loss, without any reasonable hope of that extent of improvement which will ever afford the means of reimbursement.

Colonies and settlements producing little or nothing,—open during every war to the attacks of an enemy, and requiring a constant and regular drain of money from the supreme Government to support expensive civil and military establishments, and a still greater expence in additional military and naval equipments in time of war, in addition to a great waste of

* The articles imported are *Gum Arabic, Gum Senegal, Gum Wood, Red Wood, Ebony, Elephants' Teeth, Bees' Wax, and Ostrich Feathers*. The vessels in the wood and ivory trade are obliged to collect the articles as they can from the negroes, generally trusting them with goods, while the barter, in the interior country, for ivory and such other productions as may be wanted, occasions a prodigious loss of time.

human life, arising from a noxious and unwholesome climate, can never be a desirable acquisition to any country. And the more especially, when an abandonment will not preclude a trade with the natives to perhaps as great an extent as the consumption of the British market will require of the articles of exportation, which these countries can furnish.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

This quarter of Africa, notwithstanding the great expence of its civil government and military establishment, holds out advantages from local situation which do not apply to those parts of this vast continent where British settlements at present exist.

The immense possessions in India, under the British Government, render the Cape of Good Hope dangerous in the hands of an enemy. It has besides many resources, by which, with proper attention, it might soon become a most valuable colony to the supreme Government. It is of importance, therefore, accurately to examine these resources, with a view to ascertain what may be ultimately expected from a well organized system that shall be immediately applicable to the peculiar situation of this extensive territory, which may be considered at present as very little advanced beyond a state of infancy.

PRODUCTIONS OF THE SOIL.

Notwithstanding the vast extent of sterile and immeasurable deserts and rugged mountains with which this extensive country abounds, yet there are interstices where the lands are both fertile and congenial to the cultivation of an immense quantity of produce, valuable for consumption and for exportation. The climate is favourable not only to many articles produced in tropical climates, but also to almost every species of cultivation, which prevails in countries without the tropics.

The soils are various in different parts of the country, and the moisture is considerable from rains, springs, and rivulets, which in some parts are very abundant, vivified by the heat of the climate, producing the quickest vegetation even in inferior lands, whether from seeds sown, or from the spontaneous productions of the earth. Corn and grain of every country in the world may be cultivated with advantage in different parts of the colony. European wheat, however, and barley, appear to thrive the best; but the Indian corn is equally productive, and is perhaps more congenial to the climate. Coffee and cotton have been cultivated, on a small scale, to great perfection.

Grasses of different kinds abound in the interior country with some exceptions, and as a succedaneum green corn, principally barley, is not only converted into hay, but is used as green food for cattle.*

* The cultivated land in the vicinity of the principal settlement includes a circuit of about 30 miles, but some farms extend to the distance of 500 miles.

Most of the fruits peculiar to tropical climates may be cultivated to great advantage, such as oranges, lemons, pomegranates, citrons, with melons, cucumbers, pumpkins, &c. which are very abundant. But above all the grape, in all its varieties, flourishes to an extent almost beyond parallel.

To the immense variety of flowers, which exceeds description, may be added a vast diversity of medical plants, whose virtues, although familiar to the natives, are yet little known in Europe.

About seventy different kinds of timber have been recognised in the colony, among which the oak and elm of Europe thrive well; but from some experiments which have been made, it appears in those districts where they have been made to be of no real value, and scarcely fit for any thing but firewood, being of a warpy nature, and it perishes soon after being worked.

Of the minerals found in the colony, salt may be considered as the principal, and from its extent is capable of much beneficial application. Precious stones, such as cornelian, agates, &c. are found in great abundance in some parts of the interior. Gold, in small quantities, is said to be discovered sometimes on the shores, supposed to have been washed from the mountains; but no opportunity has been yet afforded to explore the bowels of the earth, although an opinion prevails that coal exists in some of the mountains, and perhaps other valuable minerals.

Among the animals to be found in the colony, may be generally mentioned the elephant, valuable for its ivory, and the hippopotamus for its skin, to which may be added a very numerous breed of oxen and cattle, which may be rendered useful in various ways.

POPULATION.

Considering the great extent of the colony, its population is greatly short of what would be necessary to render the cultivatable lands productive to the utmost of what they are capable. The number of inhabitants, of all classes, may perhaps be estimated at present at about 90,000; of whom about 15,000 are whites, 20,000 free people of colour, 40,000 denominated slaves, and about 15,000 Hottentots. But as no actual census has been published, a good deal hangs on conjecture.

The White Population consists of five different classes:—

1. The Dutch Boors, or Farmers, who cultivate the lands.
2. The Dutch Emigrants, who now assume the appellation of Africaners.
3. The Descendants of the Portuguese Adventurers.
4. The French Refugees.
5. The British Residents.

The Coloured Population comprises the following classes:—

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------|
| | Native Inhabitants. |
| 1. Free People of Colour. | 1. Hottentots. |
| 2. Free Slaves. | 2. Bosgesmen. |
| 3. Slaves. | 3. Kaffres. |

According to Mr. Barrow, the distribution of the White Population and their Families, Servants, and Slaves, is as follows:—

	Persons.
In the District of the Cape	18,152
District of Stellenboch and Drakenstein	22,959
District of Zavelendam	6,663
District of Graaf Reynett	14,173

With the Exception of *Cape Town*, *Stellenboch*, and *Simons Town*, there are none in the colony above the rank of villages, of which there are not above six or seven.

A general opinion prevails, that the population, upon the whole, has been lately on the decline. According to Mr. Barrow, at the time he wrote, in 1801, the Cape Town consisted of 1,145 houses, inhabited by 5,500 whites and people of colour, and 10,000 blacks. In the year 1797, the total population of the Cape District was said to be 6,261 persons professing the Christian religion, and 11,891 slaves; since that period, however, there has been a considerable increase in the buildings, and it is reasonable to suppose there must have been an increase of inhabitants. Even according to the latest information, the buildings in the town are rapidly increasing. The decline in the population, if it really exists, must be in the country.

Both the Boors and Dutch Africaners are represented to be a very sluggish, indolent, and inactive race of men, extremely ignorant, and indisposed to acquire knowledge, and in every point of view ill calculated for those exertions and that enterprise, which are necessary to make the most of the local and other advantages they possess, far less to give effect to those improvements, of which a new colony so full of resources is susceptible. The wretched education they receive generates lax notions, both of religion and virtue: hence a deficiency in those social virtues, which produces a dissoluteness of manners that too generally prevails among the Africaners at the Cape, often exhibiting great deformities in the human character.

Of all the various classes of original settlers the French Refugees are considered as the best. Of those in the interior, uncontaminated by the vices of the Cape, many instances of virtue, generosity, and hospitality are to be found; but it is to be lamented, that they are all generally indolent. With such a race of people, it is impossible the colony can ever make much progress, since the rising generation from the commencement of the settlement have followed, and still follow the example of their fathers.

The Hottentots are a poor dejected harmless race, evidently deficient in intellect, and almost devoid of memory. They are, for the most part, a wandering people, living in huts, and appear to have no particular leader, or any settled notions or habits. Their principal food consists of fruits or roots: they seldom eat animal food. It is believed that the race is rapidly decreasing.

Another class of natives inhabit the colony, denominated Bosgesmen, or Men of the Bushes, of whom little is known except that they are a race so extremely savage and ferocious,—that they are deemed incapable of civilization. They are a diminutive race, not exceeding four feet high. They go entirely naked, and live in the woods carrying bows and arrows, which are said to be poisoned. Their numbers are totally unknown.

A third race of people found here are denominated Kaffres. These are totally unlike in every respect either the Hottentots, or the Bosgesmen. They are a tall robust people bordering on black. The height of the men is not unfrequently 6 feet 10 inches. They are warlike, and have some sort of government under a leader or king, who is represented to be a man of considerable ability. They are in a state of absolute hostility to every description of Europeans, whom they consider as intruders. Several Treaties

have been made with the Kaffres and the Dutch, and at length the boundary of the Kaffre land has been fixed by the Great Fish River, which is guarded by a military force and a line of posts from Algoa bay to the utmost extent of the colony, a distance of 6 to 700 English miles.

A regiment, called the Cape Regiment, composed of Hottentots and Bastard Hottentots, and some companies of British troops are sent up occasionally from Cape Town for the purpose of preserving peace between the old Dutch Boors and the Kaffres, who mutually complain of encroachments on each other's territories by their cattle escaping on each side; but generally the Boors have been found to be the aggressors. Of the population of the Kaffre tribe no estimate can be formed.

REVENUE OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

The present Revenues of the Colony arise from the following sources, viz.

- 1st. The land revenues proceeding
 1. from the rents of loan farms.
 2. from gratuity lands.
 3. from quit rents.
 4. places taken by the month.
 5. salt pans.
- 2d. On goods imported into the colony from foreign parts.
- 3d. Barrier duties paid on all wines and brandy brought from the country into Cape Town.
- 4th. Market duty or toll on all articles brought for sale, at the new market in Cape Town, with the exception of the produce of the grazier.
- 5th. A duty on the sale or transfer of any estate or building, and on the lease of every loan farm.
- 6th. A considerable duty, called the Vendue duty, on property sold by auction.
- 7th. Revenue arising from fees received at the Secretary's Office.
- 8th. Revenue from seizures, fines, and penalties.
- 9th. Revenue from postage of letters—not considerable.
- 10th. Duty on licences to retail wine, beer, and spirituous liquors.
- 11th. Duty on licences to keep gaming houses.
- 12th. Duty on licences to leave the colony.
- 13th. Interest of the capital lent by the directors of the Lombard Bank.
- 14th. A stamp duty on all law proceedings, contracts, mortgages, bonds, wills, codicils, receipts, deeds of every kind, charter-parties, bottomry, vendue notes of every kind, licenses to vendue masters, butchers, bakers, wine merchants, waggons, clubs, societies, billiard tables, permissions to remain in, or to leave the colony, letters of burghership, adoptions, emancipations, powers of attorney, protests, transfers on deeds of appointment of civil servants, and all proceedings in courts of appeal, and courts of admiralty, &c. &c. &c.

In the year 1797, Mr. Barrow calculates the net annual proceeds of the colonial revenue at 450,713 rix-dollars, or £90,142 sterling, valuing the rix-dollars at 4s.

This revenue is applicable to the payment of salaries on the civil establishments, the expences of the several departments, the repairs of the government buildings, &c. It

is supposed to have considerably increased since 1797, and is amply sufficient for all the purposes to which it is appropriated.

TRADE OF THE CAPE.

The commerce and shipping of this colony are in a similar situation with its agriculture. They are still in their infancy, making, however, more rapid advances to maturity within the last four years, than at any period since it passed into the hands of Great Britain.

Its progress will depend entirely on the increase of an industrious population,—in the augmentation of its more valuable articles of exportation, and on the degree of perfection to which these articles can be brought. In proportion as the exportable articles increase, so will the manufactures of Great Britain, required for the consumption of the colony, be augmented.

Until the duty on wines produced in the colony was reduced to 2s. 7d. a gallon, and until the great exertions of General Craddock, the governor, and Mr. Alexander, his chief secretary, proved successful in improving the quality of the wines, the remittances in return for the goods shipped were made in bills drawn on the British treasury to defray the expences of the army and other contingencies unconnected with the application of the colonial revenue. The demand for these bills having always greatly exceeded the supply, the competition among the purchasers has been so great that the exchange has fluctuated from 50 to 70 per cent., and of course this additional charge upon all British goods imported has operated unfavourably, by which the price was so enhanced as to render them inaccessible in many instances to the purchasers: and hence the consumption has been materially checked.

This state of things has prevented British merchants possessing capitals from engaging in a trade hitherto so extremely unproductive. But a very few British merchants have as yet settled at Cape Town, while the Dutch residents, who assume the name of merchants, can be considered only as petty factors and salesmen. A mischievous practice prevails of exposing immediately to public auction the various articles, composing the consignments made by individuals in this country, which are usually disposed of in small lots to petty store-keepers and shop-keepers, who retail the goods at exorbitant prices, while through the medium of this system of forcing sales a kind of monopoly is established. As these sales by public vendue produce a considerable revenue, they are said to be encouraged by the local government. The colony has hitherto been ill-supplied with British goods, arising from the causes just mentioned.

WINES.

On a more extensive cultivation of the grape and general improvement in the quality of the wines (which may now be considered as the principal staple of the Cape) will

depend in a great measure the future prosperity of the colony. There are, however, various other means, by which this prosperity may be greatly promoted. The cultivation of cotton and coffee may be carried to a great extent. Wheat flour in barrels could be prepared for the West India market.

The ships proceeding to the Cape with dry goods might, with great advantage, load wines and flour for the consumption of the islands, and proceed from thence home with colonial produce; thus making three freights in their circuit. The rapid improvement in the quality of the Cape Madeira would render it acceptable in the West Indies, more especially as it can be afforded much cheaper than the wines of the Island of Madeira, of which large quantities are consumed.

The specimens of the Cape wines hitherto imported into the United Kingdom have not given a very favourable impression of their quality. They are, however, much improved within the last two or three years; and not the least doubt can be entertained that with care, management, and skill, as good wines may be made as are produced in any country in the world. The vineyards already under cultivation are large; and produce in immense quantities, and in the greatest variety, the richest and choicest fruit, that ripens to an extent, which is not surpassed in any of the wine countries in Europe.

The different sorts of wine are becoming more numerous, and of a class better suited than the sweet wines for the European and West India markets. Already five different kinds of wine are in progress of cultivation, namely, *Cape Madeira*, *Stein*, *Port*, *Pontac*, and *Constantia*. The three first being dry wines will, when improved to the fullest extent, be the most valuable as articles of consumption and exportation.

According to the statement of Mr. Fisher, who has published this year a valuable tract on the importance of the Cape of Good Hope, "the Stein wine and the Cape Madeira "with a little good management, a proper degree of fining, and a length of keeping, "would surpass the Sherry and Madeira, or by far the greater part of the wines drank "in England under those names." He adds, "I have tasted these wines in the houses of "the British merchants at the Cape, and even in the Africane houses in a state of great "perfection."

The Port wine is but very lately introduced, and not yet arrived at full perfection; but it is a wine that will improve by age, and under a skilful cultivation and manufacture will probably very soon be in no respect inferior to the wine of Oporto. There are certain advantages, which Cape wine possesses over every other: it will bear any climate: it is affected neither by heat nor cold, and never becomes sour, nor is there any acidity in it even when unprotected by brandy.

The extent in point of quantity of all sorts of wines, which may be produced in the colony of the Cape, can scarcely be estimated; but if the small and inconsiderable and steril Island of Madeira produces 20,000 hogsheads, it may not be too much to infer, that from the vast extent of the colony and the immense size of the vineyards compared with those of Madeira, more than 200,000 pipes might be produced annually without any

difficulty when aided by skill and capital, and a more extensive population. The interior of the country about 60 miles above Cape Town, in the district of Drakenstein, which is generally denominated part of the fruit country, is supposed to be best adapted to the growth of the superior wines, since there is more attributed to the soil than the climate.†

Great improvements have taken place, in consequence of the patriotic and judicious regulations of the Commander in Chief, Sir John Craddock, in the way of premium, and by the appointment of officers for the purpose of tasting and guaging the wines, from which the most salutary effects have already been experienced.

BRANDIES.

From the superabundance of luscious grapes, which are cultivated in this colony, it might reasonably be expected that brandies of the very first quality would be produced, especially as there is every requisite on the spot for the purpose. But the reverse is the fact. The brandies produced have heretofore been of the very worst quality. In this particular branch, there is a vast resource for the profitable employment of skill and capital.

Hitherto the distillery has been carried on in the most careless and slovenly manner. Inferior and refuse grapes mixed with earth, which have been thrown indiscriminately into the mash-tub, evince great imperfections in the whole process of the distillery; and the result has been, that a spirit of a very inferior quality has been produced. No doubt can be entertained of the practicability of rendering the brandies of the Cape a great article of exportable produce, and that too of the very best quality.

FRUITS.

Raisins of the best quality, together with figs, which may be cultivated to any extent, as well as every species of dried fruit imported from France, Spain, Italy, and the islands and countries in the Mediterranean, may be exported from the colony of the Cape in the greatest abundance, for all which the soil and climate are peculiarly fitted.

COTTON, COFFEE, AND TOBACCO.

These valuable articles of commerce could also be cultivated with great advantage,

† The following passage is from Mr. Fisher's Tract on the importance of the Cape of Good Hope as a colony to Great Britain, "I cannot omit mentioning the vineyard of Mr. Becker, near Constantia, which is planted with "the vines that gentleman carried with him from the banks of the Rhine. It is unlike the vineyards of the colony "nailed on espaliers of bamboo to a considerable height. Some small quantity of wine has been made from it; "but the proprietor, anxious for the credit and reputation of his wine, feels disinclined to sell any of it until it "has arrived at a certain age, when he can speak with certainty as to the success of his vineyard and the goodness "of his wine. Without calculating on the effect of age on this wine, it is impossible not to do present justice to it "by pronouncing it as really delicious."

with the assistance of a population, composed of the natives of China, who can neither find food or employment in their own country.

SOUTHERN WHALE FISHERY.

To the maritime people, who can obtain no employment in the parent state, and who have been accustomed to the southern fisheries, a considerable resource would be found in the seas surrounding the Cape. The want of capital, and the scarcity of manual labour have hitherto proved great obstacles to the prosecution of these fisheries. Whales are said to abound in all the bays of Southern Africa; and are often taken of immense size even in Table Bay and Simon's Bay. They are seen in great numbers only a few leagues from the shore, and are taken with comparatively little difficulty.

HIDES AND SKINS.

The interior of the Cape abounds in horned cattle, and the ox is said to be as large as in any part of the world. The consumption is very considerable, which would be augmented by an increased population, yielding thereby a vast number of hides for exportation. To these might be added the skins of *antelopes*, *spring-bocks*, *leopards*, and a great variety of *wild animals*. By encouraging the Hottentots, who are excellent marksmen, a very abundant supply of these skins would be regularly brought to market. The skins of sheep and goats, which are considered as of little value by the Boors, might be turned to good account as articles of commerce, and might be exchanged for coarse woollens to great advantage.

ELEPHANT'S TEETH, AND THE HIPPOPOTAMUS OR SEA COW SKINS.

Elephants in the interior are known to be more numerous than in any other part of the world, and under proper arrangements their teeth might become a valuable article of trade. They are generally found in herds near the sea coast, and on the sides of rivers; which would render easy the conveyance of the ivory to a market, while it would afford facilities in destroying them.

The sea cow is in great numbers, easily taken, and perfectly harmless. Not only the skin, but also the flesh is of some value: the first from its extreme thickness may be rendered useful for many purposes, while the latter, when properly cured, affords a species of food nearly resembling pickled pork, and is said to be extremely palatable.

HEMP AND FLAX.

Hemp is indigenous in the colony, and with flax might be cultivated to great advantage, and would also, under a more dense population, become important articles of exportation,

OSTRICH FEATHERS.

No country abounds more with these singular animals than Southern Africa. They are, however, only valuable for their feathers and their eggs. The landhrosts of the several districts having had orders to prevent the destruction of their eggs by the Boors, and the British army being also prohibited from destroying them, their numbers are increasing insomuch that in a short time ostrich feathers may form no inconsiderable article in the exports from the Cape.

MEDICINAL HERBS, &c.

Many valuable medical herbs and other natural productions are to be found in the colony, which in process of time might be converted into important articles of commerce. But capital and labour (without which the finest and most valuable productions of the earth may lie dormant) are here scanty: the first deficient in a great degree, the latter both deficient and inefficient from the indolent habits of the people.

Here seems to be a fine field for the employment of that class of convicts, transported for seven years at the assizes, who have been accustomed to agricultural pursuits, and are not contaminated by the vices of great towns. It should seem that any number of these might find profitable employment in public works, roads, or agricultural pursuits by assigning their services in the manner which prevailed previous to the American War. Such is the scarcity of menial servants at the Cape, that they cannot be obtained on any terms. African slaves are not unfrequently hired at 10, 20, and even 30 dollars a month to perform domestic duties, for which they are generally extremely ill-qualified.

To maintain and increase the importance of the Cape as a colony, independently of the advantages it possesses as a military station, and as a resting and seasoning place for troops going to a warmer climate, as a place of refreshment in voyages to and from India, and as a key to those valuable possessions, every thing should be done to increase its population, by which only it can become an exporting country, and a market for British manufactures.

When by a greater increase of British settlers it becomes more an English colony, the introduction of the English laws and jurisprudence would be most desirable. The colonial revenues, which would increase with the population, would be amply sufficient to pay the salaries of the judges, and the whole expences of the civil Government.

FREE PORT.

By extending to the Cape Town the privileges of a free-port, and permitting a general mart for the sale of East India goods on paying certain duties, a considerable trade might be opened with the Asiatic and African settlements, and also with North and South

America, from whence vessels might proceed to this center point with the produce of their different countries, and with specie for the purchase of British manufactures and East India goods. If the experiment answered, it might be turned to great account. If not, it might be abandoned after a short notice.

GRANTING LANDS TO BRITISH SETTLERS.

It is not impossible, that many individuals possessing some capital might be disposed to settle as agriculturists in the colony of the Cape, who would carry out labourers for the purpose of assisting them. To such it might be politic to make liberal grants of lands not only to the actual settlers, but smaller grants to each of their servants, who have conducted themselves well during a residence of 4 or 5 years,—preferring on every occasion those who have served in the army or navy.

CONCLUSION OF THE CHAPTER.

With all the advantages in respect to soil and climate, which the colony of the Cape of Good Hope unquestionably possesses, it must be confessed that almost insuperable difficulties are opposed to an extensive trade or a safe navigation unless a better and more secure harbour can be found than Table Bay, with conveniences for building, repairing, and careening ships, which the Cape Town does not afford. There are only six months in the year, in which ships ever venture into Table Bay, and during the winter season it is known that the Admiral on the station constantly goes round to False Bay, and takes shelter in Simon's Bay. It is also known, that the number of ships, which have been lost in Table Bay, have been almost incalculable.

If ever, therefore, the colony is to be rendered of importance in a commercial point of view, it should seem indispensably necessary, that a port should be found into which ships could enter at all times with safety, where they would be completely sheltered, and where docks and other conveniences could be established for careening and repairing. It would also be of importance, that this harbour should be situated as near as circumstances would permit to that part of the colony, where the land is most fertile, and in the immediate vicinity of the greatest proportion of the rural population.

None of these advantages attach to the Cape. It has no good harbour or the smallest convenience for shipping. It is at a great distance from the chief cultivation of the colony; and its climate is greatly inferior to that of the interior of the country.

On the contrary, Saldanha Bay possesses all the requisite advantages required, as a central situation, and as possessing a secure harbour and the means of affording every accommodation to ships in distress. To the safety of the harbour may be added its space and capaciousness, there being a very considerable extent up the country, in which the ships could ride completely land-locked. The mouth of the bay is also extremely well

defended by nature, and may be easily rendered secure against any hostile attack, while the anchorage is said to be good in every part.

In addition to this, the country in the vicinity of the bay is infinitely better adapted for the purpose of commercial and general residence than the Cape Town. It is subject to none of those inconveniences, in respect to climate, which prevail there; and it possesses superior advantages from being central in the colony, admitting of a ready supply of provisions at a smaller expence of carriage, which at Cape Town must necessarily be drawn from a very considerable distance, while the cattle coming to the Cape market would be heated from a long journey, and would not probably be very wholesome.

Saldanha affords three essential requisites for building, which are to be found on the spot, namely, stones, land, and sea-shell for lime. This situation is of all others most proper for the capital of the colony, having the additional advantage of being 70 miles north of the Cape, and to that extent nearer to the best lands and the most extensive cultivation.

The seat of government could easily, and with considerable benefit to the colony, be removed to this spot, where its natural advantages, as, a good and safe harbour, proper situations for docks and careening for shipping, and its superior climate could not fail to invite settlers possessing capitals, who might here carry on the whale fishery to great advantage, while the merchants could receive the redundant exportable productions of the country at a comparatively small expence.

As the inhabitants of this new town would probably be composed of British merchants, the society would be preferable to that which prevails at the Cape, which would still continue to be inhabited by the indolent phlegmatic Dutch Africaners, whose manners are represented to be hostile to every thing calculated to promote social habits. Saldanha Bay by affording a ready egress and regress to shipping at all seasons of the year would greatly tend to shorten the voyage.

Another advantage would arise from the consideration, that large tracts of land in the immediate vicinity of Saldanha are capable of being brought into an immediate state of cultivation, either as corn land, vine-yards, or gardens; thus holding out considerable inducements to British agriculturists to settle on these lands, as in process of time they would ensure a ready sale for their produce without the expence and labour of a tedious and distant land carriage on bad roads.

The great resources, which the colony of the Cape possesses, can never be rendered available while the Cape Town continues to be the capital and the only mart for trade in the colony. With innumerable disadvantages it possesses no one facility calculated to afford encouragement to trade, while Saldanha Bay possesses every advantage.

As this extensive and valuable colony is said to have been ceded to Great Britain in perpetuity by the recent Treaty of Peace, and as it is obviously for the advantage of the parent country, that its resources for commercial enterprize should be matured as early as possible, these suggestions have been offered with this immediate view; not doubting but

upon proper enquiry they will be found to deserve serious attention, and to be followed up by measures calculated not only for the encouragement of a more active and industrious population by liberal grants of crown lands now lying waste, but by the establishment of a port and town, where the productions of the soil will find an accessible and ready market, and where every convenience and accommodation will be afforded to trade and navigation.

From what has been stated, it should seem, that this colony requires only a certain degree of attention and arrangement on the part of Government to render it a great and important acquisition. A market ultimately for an extensive sale of British manufactures, and for the employment of many ships carrying out and bringing home much valuable merchandize, with this great advantage, that its revenues would be equal to the whole expence of its civil Government, with a probable surplus to defray at least a part of the charges of the military establishment. It is only under such circumstances, that colonies can be valuable to the parent state.

The present period, above all others, is favourable to the improvements, which have become a desideratum in the colony of the Cape. The mildness and healthiness of the climate; the fertility of the soil in many situations; the great variety of valuable produce which may be raised; the advantages to be derived from an excellent port, and a safe harbour for shipping conveniently situated;—all combine in holding out encouragement to industrious settlers, and in inviting the early attention and the active exertions of the executive Government.

The reader is referred to the Table annexed for a collected and statistical view of the power, resources, and value of the settlements in Africa in the possession of the United Kingdom, elucidated by explanatory notes; by which a general idea may be formed of these dependencies with the least possible trouble.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE OF THE SETTLEMENTS IN AFRICA IN THE POSSESSION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND;

Shewing the Population, number of Acres of Land cultivated, Shipping, Value of Productions raised, Exports and Imports, Circulating Specie; and an Estimate of the Amount of Public and Private Property, exhibiting the Value of each Settlement.—From authentic Documents and the latest Authorities. (1812.)

POWER AND RESOURCES.

	Population. (A.)		Cultivated Lands. (B.)	Shipping.			Estimated Value of Productions raised annually, including Esculents and Fruits. (C.)	Estimated Value of Exports. (D.)	Estimated Value of Imports. (D.)
	White Persons.	Persons of Colour.		Vessels.	Tons.	Men.			
			Acres.				£	£	£
Sierra Leone	28	1,899	1,560	2	300	24	123,400	107,800	111,000
Senegal, and its Dependencies . .	600	3,400	4,000	4	600	48	55,600	15,600	22,000
Goree	50	3,000	120	1	200	12	36,500	6,000	10,000
Cape of Good Hope	*20,000	*100,000	†200,000	§10	§2,000	120	584,800	334,800	453,240
Totals.	20,678	108,299	205,680	17	3,100	204	800,300	464,200	596,240

VALUE,

	PUBLIC PROPERTY.		PRIVATE PROPERTY.			TOTAL.
	Estimated Value of Forts, Barracks, Arsenals, Artillery, and all Public Buildings. (E.)	Estimated Value of Cultivated Lands. (F.)	Estimated Value of Slaves, Colonial Shipping, and Houses, Stores, Merchandize, and Furniture in the Towns. (G.)	Estimated Value of Forts, Factories, Merchandize, &c. (H.)	Estimated Circulating Specie. (I.)	
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Sierra Leone	50,000	.	.	200,000	200	200,200
Senegal, and its Dependencies . .	20,000	.	.	300,000	200	350,200
Goree	1,000,000	1,000,000	2,100,000	100,000	100	120,100
Cape of Good Hope						4,100,000
Totals.	£ 1,070,000	1,000,000	2,100,000	600,000	500	4,770,500

AGGREGATE VALUE OF EACH SETTLEMENT.

	£
Sierra Leone	200,200
Senegal, and its Dependencies . .	350,200
Goree	120,100
Cape of Good Hope	4,100,000
	<u>£ 4,770,500</u>

Population.—20,678 White Persons.
108,299 Persons of Colour.

Total 128,977

Lands.—205,680 Acres cultivated.
Ad infinitum uncultivated.

Shipping.—17 Vessels.
3,100 Tons.
204 Men.

Estimated Value of Productions raised annually, including Esculents and Fruits £ 800,300
Estimated Value of Exports (1812) £ 464,200
Idem . . . Imports (1812) £ 596,240

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

PUBLIC PROPERTY.

Estimated Value of Forts, Barracks, Arsenals, Artillery, and all Public Buildings £ 1,070,000

PRIVATE PROPERTY.

Estimated Value of Cultivated Lands † £ 1,000,000
Idem . Idem . Slaves, Colonial Shipping, and Houses, Stores, Merchandize, and Furniture, in the Towns at the Cape of Good Hope 2,100,000
Estimated Value of Forts, Factories, Merchandize, &c. in the other Settlements 600,000
Circulating Specie, estimated at 500 —3,700,500

Grand Total £ 4,770,500

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

(A.) The population of Sierra Leone is stated from a census, taken by order of Governor Columbine, in April 1811. There are about 4,000 inhabitants at Fort Louis, a town in the province of Senegal or Senegambia, including 600 Europeans.

(B.) There is little land cultivated at Sierra Leone, no more than is necessary to raise provisions for the subsistence of the inhabitants. An average of one acre per head on the population is perhaps the extent of the land cultivated at Senegal. The land is cultivated for 30 miles about Cape Town, at the Cape of Good Hope, there are farms even extending the distance of 500 miles; but as these are interstices of fertile land, well watered, in vast regions of sandy and sterile soil, there may not actually be more than 200,000 acres cultivated in vineyards, and for raising ground provisions and fruits for consumption, and for the supply of the shipping which call there. And here it is to be observed, that the soil and climate are peculiarly adapted for the culture of various wines. That very fine-flavoured wine, Constantia, is produced there, and others of late years have been cultivated with some success, particularly the Madeira wine, which has greatly improved.

(C.) The consumption of edible roots, hogs, poultry, fruits, corn, grass, &c. which are raised in each settlement, may be fairly averaged at 10% per annum for each inhabitant, to which is to be added the amount of the surplus exported.

(D.) In this, so far as regards each settlement, we are not assisted by any official statement, the exports and imports between Great Britain and the settlements in Africa being kept in the books of the customs under the general head of Africa only: they are, therefore, stated from local information.

(E.) In estimating the various articles of public property in these settlements, an approximation is all that can be expected, and this is taken considerably under what they cost, and even below their real value.

(F.) The cultivated lands at the Cape of Good Hope, some of which, in the neighbourhood of the towns, are worth 30, 40, and 50% per acre, may be averaged at 10% amounting for 200,000 acres to 1,000,000%.

(G.) Cape Town, Simon's Town, and Stellenbosch, are the principal towns at the Cape of Good Hope. There are also considerable villages, as the Paarl or Pearl, Zwellenam, and Graham's Town. Cape Town alone contains 1,145 houses.

(H.) It appears from the Report of the Directors, in 1792, that the establishment at Sierra Leone, including the lands, buildings, and merchandize, was valued at 134,705% and as considerable sums have since been laid out on the fortifications and buildings, the whole cannot now be worth less than 200,000%. According to Mr. Macpherson there is a factory and a fort at Goree. The establishment is upon a much larger scale at Senegal.

(I.) There is little money circulating in the settlements of Sierra Leone, Senegal, and Goree, probably not more than the sums above-mentioned. At the Cape of Good Hope there is none, the circulating medium being Paper Issues to the amount of 3,000,000 rix dollars, (about 300,000% sterling at the present exchange,) lent on mortgages by Government. who receive six per cent. All the property in the country is mortgaged; some for half, others for two-thirds of the value of the property.

† Including vineyards. There is besides, land *ad infinitum* uncultivated.

* Since forming the above Table, we have seen an accurate account, from which it appears that the number of each class comprising the population has materially diminished: the total population may now be stated at perhaps not more than 90,000.

§ More than double the number of vessels above stated anchor at the Cape every year; but as some land a part of the cargo only, and others merely call for refreshments and water on their voyage to India, the shipping actually trading to that settlement exclusively may not exceed 2,000 tons.

CHAPTER XII.

ON THE COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES IN THE INDIAN OCEAN IN THE POSSESSION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Situation and extent of Ceylon.—Chief seat of Oriental Trade in 522.—Arabians traded there previous to 1505.—Passed into the hands of the Portuguese.—Dutch invaded the island in 1638, and in 1656 obtained full possession.—Continued in the hands of the Dutch till 1795.—Captured by his Majesty's Forces.—Ceded in perpetuity to the British Crown by the Treaty of Amiens in 1801.—Whole Coast in possession of the British, encircling the King of Candy's Dominions.—Its Population.—Productions.—Trade.—Importance of introducing Agriculturists from Bengal and different parts of India to cultivate the Lands.—Indolence of the Cinglese, or Native Inhabitants.—Revenues increased under General Maitland, and may be carried to a great extent.—Measures recommended for improving the Agriculture, and encouraging a spirit of enterprize and industry in the Colony.—Table annexed exhibits its power, resources, and value.—Isle of France ceded to the British Crown by the Treaty of Paris on the 30th May 1814.—Discovered by the Portuguese in 1505.—Dutch landed under Admiral Van Neck in 1598, and changed its name to Mauritius, after the Prince of Orange.—Abandoned by the Dutch, who formed a Settlement at the Cape of Good Hope in 1712.—Occupied soon after by the French Settlers from Bourbon, who changed its name to the Isle of France.—In 1785, M. de la Bourdonnau appointed Governor of both Islands.—His zeal, talents, and capacity for government.—After a life of great activity in the service of his country he fell a victim to a faction.—Surrendered to the British Arms in 1810.—Its importance as a place of defence in these seas.—Population.—Excellence of the climate.—Fertility of the soil.—Its productions.—Trees.—Grains.—Fruits.—Exportable Articles of Commerce.—Nothing wanted but an improved Agriculture and augmented Population.—Statistical Table of its power, resources, and value.

CEYLON.

CEYLON is a large and fertile island in the Indian Seas, separated from the south east point of Hindostan by the Palk Strait and the Gulph of Manaar. It is 230 miles in length, and 140 miles at its greatest breadth.

It is said to have been the chief seat of oriental trade so far back as the year 522. Previous to 1505 the principal trade was in the hands of the Arabians, when the Portuguese first settled in the island, and fortified the whole coast.

In 1638 the Dutch invaded the island, and in eighteen years afterwards obtained possession of all the Portuguese forts, namely in 1656, and at the same time occupied their capital town Columbo, and thereby became possessed of the coast and the whole cinnamon trade as they had already been of that of the nutmegs, mace, and cloves.

This island continued in possession of the Dutch until the year 1795, when it was captured by his Majesty's forces; it was afterwards ceded in perpetuity to the British Crown by the Treaty of Amiens in 1801.

The woods and mountains completely surround the dominions of the King of Candy, while the whole coast is in possession of the British. The Cinglese, or natives of the island inhabiting the British territories may amount to 700,000, and about 100,000 of most of the nations of India, besides about 6,000 white inhabitants, chiefly the descendants of Portuguese and Dutch, including a small proportion of English, who have established themselves since this important island became a British colony;—important certainly from its immense physical resources, but hitherto more from its local situation than for the value or extent of the exportable productions, which have as yet been raised in an island where nature has been so bountiful as to require the arm of industry, in order to produce from the proper cultivation of the soil almost every article of commerce, which has been considered of the greatest comparative value in the different markets of Europe. Yet the articles of cinnamon and pepper are the only staples which have found their way to Europe. A considerable trade is however carried on between this island and the various territories on the continent and islands in Asia.

The Tables annexed, No. 11, exhibiting a statistical view of the power, resources, and value of this island, are elucidated by such copious explanatory notes, containing a variety of important facts, founded on the latest and best authorities, that nothing further can be added on the subject. It is only therefore necessary to refer the reader to these Tables, and particularly to the Notes, which will be found to contain much curious and valuable information.

Were it possible to introduce the industrious agriculturists of Bengal and other parts of India into Ceylon in numbers equal to the cultivation of the fine productive lands, which are neglected by the indolent natives, it is not easy to say to what extent the revenues of this island may be carried. These revenues were greatly increased under the able government of General Maitland; and no doubt can be entertained, that by the adoption of measures calculated to draw from the soil, the trees, and vegetable substances to the utmost they are capable of producing, that the whole civil and military establishments would be supported free of any expence to the supreme Government, with a considerable surplus to be remitted yearly.

The Cinglese, or native inhabitants, now under the British Government, require the example of a more industrious race of people, in order to excite emulation and exertion. With the most prolific country in the world, they incur the reproach of requiring importations of rice for a part of the food they consume annually.

It will be for the wisdom of Government, aided by the advice of the intelligent and respectable individual, who now presides over the colony, and others to devise the best means of establishing regulations for the encouragement of a more extended cultivation of the soil—for diffusing among the natives a greater spirit of enterprize and industry than at present prevails, as the best and only means of promoting their own comfort and happiness, and extending the resources of this valuable colony. It had been badly governed by the Portuguese, the original conquerors, and perhaps still worse by their successors the Dutch, who generally lost sight of the interest of their country, and of the improvement of the condition of the natives, by directing their attention (perhaps with some few exceptions) to amassing fortunes for themselves. And hence it is, that from the first establishment of Europeans in this valuable island, nothing has been effectually done either to ameliorate the condition of the inhabitants, or to improve the agriculture of the country.

THE ISLE OF FRANCE.

The Isle of France, or the Mauritius, ceded in perpetuity to the British Crown by the Treaty of Paris concluded on the 30th May 1814, was first discovered by the Portuguese in the year 1505. In 1598 the Dutch Admiral Van Neck landed on the island, and changed its name after that of the Prince of Orange to *Mauritius*. The Dutch are supposed to have settled the island about the year 1644. In 1657 the wreck of the French settlers at Madagascar sought refuge in the Isle of Bourbon. The Dutch having become masters of the Cape of Good Hope in 1712, they abandoned the Mauritius, which was soon after occupied by the French settlers at Bourbon, who changed its name to the Isle of France.

In 1735 M. de la Bourdonnau became governor of the two islands; and to his zeal, talents, and exertions may be attributed the great progress, which was made in their cultivation and improvement. He introduced from the Brazils the cultivation of the manioc,† a most nutritious and wholesome food, upon which the negroes chiefly subsist. He was the first to introduce the sugar cane, and to form plantations of cotton and indigo, and to establish iron works. In 1738 he built a ship of 500 tons, the first ever launched at Port Louis. He made roads, constructed bridges, magazines, hospitals, arsenals, batteries, fortifications, barracks, mills, quays, offices, and shops, and made canals and aqueducts. He upheld the glory of the French arms with dignity and effect; and having devoted a life of great activity to the service of his country, like Lally, he fell a victim to the relentless fury of a faction, and loaded with irons and unmerited reproach he expired in a dungeon of the Bastile.

† The manioc is a root as large as a man's arm; when grated, it is made into cakes; three pounds of it are given to each negro for his daily food.

In the month of December 1810, this island, with its dependencies, surrendered to the British arms. It has been always considered as possessing extraordinary means of defence, and is capable of being placed in a perfect state of security.

The population of the island may be estimated at 91,000 persons, 17,000 of whom are white inhabitants, 4,000 free persons of colour, and 70,000 blacks. The soil of the island is of a reddish colour, mixed with ferruginous matter, and though apparently dry is very fertile when cultivated, and abundantly productive when manured, and its cultivation does not require extraordinary labour.

There are about sixty rivers of various sizes, and several lakes in the island. Port Louis, the seat of government, contains about 6,000 houses chiefly built of wood, and generally highly ornamented. The inhabitants are remarkable for politeness and hospitality. Many of them are of the ancient noblesse of France, who, being weary of the scenes exhibited in their native country, have found an asylum here, where disease is hardly known, where the sky is clear, and the climate uncommonly wholesome and temperate, rendered still more agreeable by the salubrity and softness of the air, and the fine scenery which every where prevails.

Among the various trees which compose the groves and forests of this island may be mentioned those of the *cinnamon*, *pepper*, *fig*, *ebony*, *cocoa*, *almond*, *lemon*, *nutmeg*, *bamboo*, *latanier*, *mangalier*, *palm*, *pine*, *fir*, and *oak*, and also a species of timber called *fouraha*, admirably adapted to all the purposes of ship-building.

All the fruits of the tropical climates grow in this island, and many of those of Europe, as *apples*, *pears*, *cherries*, *stranberries*, *apricots*, *mulberries*, and *olives*. Of the grains wheat flourishes, and its flour is preferable to that of Europe for long voyages. *Maize*, *rice*, and *tobacco* are cultivated with the greatest advantage.

The exportable commercial productions are *sugar*, *cotton*, *coffee*, *indigo*, *nutmegs*, *cloves*, *ambergris*, and *iron*.

Such are the resources of this fine colony, that nothing is wanted but improvements in agriculture and an augmented population to render its exportable productions extremely valuable. Its political importance is too obvious to require any elucidation.

The reader is referred to the Table, No. 11, annexed to this Chapter, for a statistical view of the power and resources of this colony, together with its trade, shipping, &c.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE OF THE COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES IN THE INDIAN OCEAN, IN THE POSSESSION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND;

Shewing the Population, Number of Acres of Land cultivated and uncultivated, Shipping, Value of Productions raised, Exports, and Imports, Circulating Specie; and an Estimate of the Amount of Public and Private Property, exhibiting the Value of each Colony.—From Authentic Documents and the latest Authorities. (1812.)

POWER AND RESOURCES.

	POPULATION.			LANDS.		Colonial Shipping.	Estimated Value of Productions raised annually including Esculents and Fruits.	Estimated Value of Exports.	Estimated Value of Imports.
	White Persons.	Miscellaneous Free Persons. †	Negro Labourers.	Cultivated.	Uncultivated.				
				Acres.	Acres.	Tons.	£	£	£
Ceylon (A)	6,000	800,000		500,000	1,500,000	10,000	2,306,000	1,500,000	1,000,000
Mauritius, or Isle of France (B)	17,000	4,000	70,000	80,000	152,680	3,000	905,000	450,000	260,000
Isle of Bourbon (C)	16,400	3,496	70,450	90,000	210,000	2,000	801,730	350,000	200,000
Java and its Dependencies (D)	12,000	1,000,000		550,000		10,000	2,012,000	1,000,000	500,000
Totals	51,400	1,807,496	140,450	1,220,000	1,862,680	25,000	6,024,730	3,300,000	1,960,000

VALUE.

	PUBLIC PROPERTY.		PRIVATE PROPERTY.							TOTAL.
	Estimated Value of Forts, Barracks, Arsenals, Artillery, and all Public Buildings.	Estimated Value of Negro Labourers.	Estimated Value of Lands.		Estimated Value of Buildings, Utensils, &c. on Estates.	Estimated Value of all kinds of Stock on Estates.	Estimated Value of Houses, Stores, Merchandize, and Furniture, in the Towns.	Estimated Value of Colonial Shipping.	Estimated Circulating Specie.	
	£	£	Cultivated.	Uncultivated.	£	£	£	£	£	£
Ceylon	2,000,000		5,000,000	750,000	. . . * . .	. . . * . .	2,450,000	120,000	100,000	10,420,000
Mauritius, or Isle of France	800,000	3,850,000	1,660,000	152,680	850,000	473,660	2,400,000	36,000	50,000	10,212,340
Isle of Bourbon	600,000	3,874,750	1,800,000	210,000	550,000	220,000	2,200,000	24,000	50,000	9,528,750
Java and its Dependencies	1,000,000		5,600,000		. . . * . .	. . . * . .	1,000,000	120,000	80,000	7,700,000
Totals . . . £	4,400,000	7,724,750	13,900,000	1,112,680	1,400,000	693,660	8,050,000	300,000	280,000	37,861,090

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

AGGREGATE VALUE OF EACH COLONY.

Ceylon	£ 10,420,000
Mauritius, or Isle of France	10,212,340
Isle of Bourbon	9,528,750
Java and its Dependencies	7,700,000
	<u>£ 37,861,090</u>

Population.— 51,400 White Persons.
1,807,496 Miscellaneous Free Persons.
140,450 Negro Labourers.

Total 1,999,346

Lands.— 1,220,000 Acres cultivated.
1,862,680 Idem uncultivated.

Colonial Shipping.—25,000 Tons.

Estimated Value of Productions raised annually, including Esculents and Fruits. . . . £6,024,730

Estimated Value of Exports . . . £3,300,000

Idem . . Idem Imports . . . £1,960,000

PUBLIC PROPERTY.

Estimated Value of Forts, Barracks, Arsenals, Artillery, and all Public Buildings £ 4,400,000

PRIVATE PROPERTY.

Estimated Value of Lands, viz. Cultivated . . . £13,900,000
Uncultivated . . . || 1,112,680
£ 15,012,680

Estimated Value of Negro Labourers 7,724,750
Idem . . Idem Buildings, Utensils, &c. on Estates . . 1,400,000
Idem . . Idem all kinds of Stock on Estates . . . 693,660
Idem . . Idem Houses, Stores, Merchandize, and Furniture in the Towns 8,050,000
Estimated Value of Colonial Shipping 300,000
Money in Circulation, estimated at 280,000

—33,461,090

Grand Total - - £ 37,861,090

† In Ceylon, principally Cinglese; in Java, Malays, Chinese, Moors, Malabars, Hindoos, Gemoos, Persians, Arabians, &c. In Mauritius or the Isle of France, and Bourbon, free persons of Colour.
* All Buildings, Stock, Agricultural Utensils, &c. on Estates are included in the Value of the Lands.
|| It is presumed, that a considerable part of the uncultivated land belongs to the Crown.

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

(A.) CEYLON.

Future Advantages to be expected from the possession of the Island of Ceylon, as a Dependency of the United Kingdom of Great Britain.

1st. The harbour of Trincomalee, as a safe shelter for shipping during the monsoons, and the only one in the regions of India, must prevent all rivalry on the part of European nations, who can find shelter no where else for their vessels at that inclement season; besides, it would be impossible to carry on an extensive trade with India, especially in time of war, while Great Britain is in possession not only of Trincomalee, but of most of the harbours in India which afford protection to shipping at the period of the monsoons.

2d. The climate and soil of the British possessions in the island of Ceylon being capable of producing almost every valuable article of commerce which is to be found in tropical climates almost without exception, and several others of great importance which are to be found in no other country, it only requires a proper administration of government, and that attention which will tend to stimulate the industry of the natives to promote a greater degree of civilization and industry, by availing themselves of the superior advantages they enjoy in raising the various articles of rich and valuable produce with a moderate degree of labour:—From hence, to increase to a great extent the produce of the country so as to enable them to export a large surplus, and thereby not only to enrich themselves, but also to improve the revenue,† and to extend their commercial intercourse for the benefit of the British Empire; not less by the importation of many valuable articles required for the consumption of Europe, than by the exportation of various kinds of British manufactures which the improved opulence of the natives will enable them to purchase. A desire might at the same time be excited to possess a mixture of European settlers, better acquainted than the natives are with the arts of civilization, and the best mode of cultivating the soil and of taking advantage of the resources which the island affords for creating property almost without any labour at all which would be of essential benefit to the colony, inasmuch as it would hold out an example to the natives, exhibiting the additional comforts and advantages which European industry might confer upon them. Such examples, if widely diffused, would work wonders, particularly in ameliorating the condition of the natives, and scarcely any sacrifice in the way of encouragement to European settlers could be estimated too high; since the advantages that would result from the augmented produce of the country in every valuable article of commerce would soon be returned to one hundred fold, provided the encouragement was liberal and the regulations such as would give free scope to industry. It is impossible, under such circumstances, to say to what extent the various productions of the British settlements of the island of Ceylon could be carried; and if it should turn out to be true in point of fact that the tea plant, which is found to be indigenous in one quarter of the island, can be so cultivated and cured as to render it a substitute for even a certain proportion of the immense quantities of tea annually imported from China, the advantages in that case to the British nation would be too obvious to require any comment. A competition would be then raised against the teas of China, which would not only tend to reduce the original price, but also to render it unnecessary to purchase more than can be paid for by the British manufactures annually sent to that country. It should seem that almost every article, which has been heretofore imported from foreign countries and paid for in specie and articles not produced in Great Britain, may be raised in Ceylon. And if it should ever happen (which God forbid) that we should be deprived of our Continental Possessions in India, the island of Ceylon being capable of defence and of being retained as a British colony, would furnish every other article required for European consumption, which is to be found in the extensive regions of India; while these countries would take off that part of its produce, which is not required for the consumption of Europe, and thereby enrich the colony by an intercourse with the Eastern as well as the Western world.

Population.—In Ceylon, the British are in possession of the whole of the sea coast, which completely encircles the King of Candy's dominions. And as the number of inhabitants is prodigious, consisting of people of almost all the neighbouring nations, it is conceived there cannot be less than 800,000 souls in the parts occupied by the British, and perhaps 6,000 Europeans in the towns of Trincomalee, Columbo, and Jaffna.

Lands.—This island is said to contain more than 12,000,000 acres, of which it is estimated at least 2,000,000 are in the hands of the British. When its numerous population and its various productions, some of which are very abundant, are considered, it may be fairly inferred that 500,000 acres are in cultivation, leaving 1,500,000 in the British parts uncultivated.

Shipping.—A very extensive commercial intercourse is carried on between Ceylon and Madras, the Coromandel Coast, and other parts of India, which cannot employ less than 10,000 tons of shipping.

Productions.—According to Mr. Percival, the following is an account of the valuable productions of the island of Ceylon:—

Woods.—“The *Tick-Wood Tree*, which may be called the Oak of Ceylon, is found to be of great value, and is applied to the most useful purposes. Owing to the firm texture of this wood, which is uncommonly hard, it is able both to endure the intense heat of the sun without splitting, and almost to resist the attacks of ants and other vermin, with which warm climates abound. On these accounts, tick-wood is much used for tables, chairs, and other pieces of household furniture, as well as for building vessels, &c. which are much exposed to the rays of the sun. At Bombay, it is frequently used in the construction of ships, which are found quite as durable and adapted for every service as those made of oak.

The *Cocoa Tree* grows to a great height, is slender and straight, with the body completely bare, and only the top crowned with a bunch of long green leaves. Under the leaves the nuts appear growing in clusters: each tree bears from two to three dozen. The nut has a rind or outside coat of a green colour, very thick, and composed of fibrous threads. These are so long as to be manufactured into ropes, called coya ropes, and cordage of various descriptions; even cables of the largest size are made of them, and are generally esteemed from being more buoyant in salt water than those made of hemp. These fibres, however, are of too harsh a nature to be manufactured without some previous preparation; and therefore on being taken off, the rind is put into water to swell,

† The revenue has already greatly increased. According to the Governor, soon after the island was ceded to Great Britain it yielded a revenue of 70,000*l.* per annum; and in 1811 it produced about 300,000*l.*

EXPLANATORY NOTES, continued.

and is afterwards beaten, before it is capable of being wrought into cordage. From the top of the tree, where the leaves shoot up, a liquor called *toddy* is procured by incision. A slit is made in this part of the tree with a knife overnight, and a chatty or earthen pot suspended from the branches so as to receive the juice, which immediately begins to distil, and continues to do so until the following morning, when the pot is removed. *Arrack*, an article of great export, is solely made from toddy, and whole woods of the cocoa tree are employed for the purpose of procuring it. A balm or yeast arises from this process, equal to that which is procured from our malt liquor employed in the preparation of whiskey. The toddy is likewise made into vinegar, and yields a species of coarse black sugar known by the name of jaggery. At the foot of the tree, and likewise among the branches at the top grows a coat or web of a very light and porous substance, which is manufactured into a very coarse cloth called *grinjakken* or *gunny cloth*. It is used for bags to hold rice, and also for coverings to the cinnamon bales. The *grinjakken* is also made into a coarse species of paper. When cut down, the trunk furnishes posts to support, and the branches rafters to roof the bungaloes or huts of the natives. It is much used in the construction of canoes, and with it the mosula boats of Madras are built. In some parts of India this wood is applied to the construction of larger vessels. These are the principal uses of this valuable tree; it is likewise used for many domestic purposes.

"The *Betel Tree* appears to be of some utility. The areka or betel nut is chewed by the natives of India. The leaf usually distinguished by the name of the betel leaf does not, however, grow upon this tree, but from being constantly chewed along with the betel nut, has acquired this appellation. The tree, though remarkably tall and straight, is equally remarkable for its extreme slenderness, being no thicker than the calf of a man's leg. The nuts grow in bunches at the top like those of the cocoa, but are in size no bigger than a nutmeg, and with the same sort of shell. After they are pulled, the Cinglese expose them in the sun to dry, and then split the outside husk, in order to separate it from the nut. The nuts, from their general use, form an article of considerable traffic among the natives. The timber of the tree is used for rafters to houses, and makes excellent lath. It is also used in pales to fence their grounds, and for various other purposes.

The true *Ebony*, so remarkable for its weight, and the polish which it takes, is found in great abundance in this island.

There are many other useful woods produced in abundance, as *nando wood*, *satin wood*, and *calamander*, the most beautiful wood, which are used in household furniture and writing desks. There are also many trees which yield fruits, and are appropriated to various uses, as the *bread fruit tree*, *talipot tree*, *banyan tree*, or *Indian fig tree*, &c. also the cotton tree, the cotton of which is inferior to that which grows on the shrub in other parts of India; it is however much used for mattresses, pillows, coarse cloths, and other purposes.

Cinnamon.—This island produces an immense quantity of cinnamon (which is its principal staple) both wild and cultivated, of which four sorts alone are barked, and all these are species of the plant called *laurus cinnamomum*. Cinnamon is known among the natives by the name of *curundu*, and it is by various epithets joined to this appellation, that the several kinds are distinguished:—The *rasse curundu*, or honey cinnamon, is distinguished by its large, broad, thick leaves, and is accounted to have the finest flavour. The *nai curundu*, or snake cinnamon, has also large leaves, and is not greatly inferior in quality to the former. The *capuru curundu*, or camphor cinnamon, is an inferior species; its root yields camphor by distillation; or if an incision be made in it, a gummy substance containing camphor distils of itself from the wound. The *cabatte curundu* is an astringent species of cinnamon, harsh to the taste, with rather smaller leaves than the former sorts. These four are the only species of cinnamon tree which produces this spice of a good quality, or indeed which are ever allowed to be barked by the servants of Government. The growth of cinnamon seems to have been confined by nature to the island of Ceylon; for at Malabar, Batavia, the Isle of France, and indeed every other place to which it has been transplanted, it has uniformly degenerated.

Pepper.—There are several sorts of pepper, of which these are the principal:—1. The *chilly*, or red pepper, is produced on a shrub, from which the cayen pepper is made. 2. The *black pepper*, though not peculiar to Ceylon, nor found in so great plenty there as in the Molucca Isles, still forms an useful part of its produce. 3. The *white pepper* is originally the same with the black, and is rendered of that colour by a preparation of Chinam, applied to it before it is dried, which takes off the black coat with which it is covered.

Tea Plant.—The *Tea Plant* has also been discovered native in the forests of this island. "I have (says Mr. Percival) "in my possession "a letter from an officer in the 80th regiment, wherein he states, that he had found the real tea plant in the woods of Ceylon of a "quality equal to any that ever grew in China; and that it was in his power to point out to Government the means of cultivating it "in a proper manner. The vast advantages to be derived from the cultivation of the tea plant in our dominions ought at least to "prompt a speedy and vigorous experiment on the subject."

Coffee.—The *Coffee* produced in Ceylon is of a very good quality, and in flavour resembles the Moka coffee. The coffee tree has been raised in the plantations with the greatest success, and presents a very beautiful appearance.

Sugar Cane.—The sugar cane has been introduced into the island, and plantations of it are found in the neighbourhood of Caltura. Some rum is made from it, and the natives are fond of chewing the pulp. There is the sugar tree also, a species of the palm found in several parts of the island, which from the saccharine juice contained in it yields as good a sugar as that extracted from the cane, and far superior to the jaggery.

Esculents.—A great quantity of *Rice*, which is the chief food of the natives, and other sorts of grain are produced. What is commonly called *paddy* is a very inferior grain. *Corocan* is a small seed, like our mustard, which they beat in a mortar, and make into cakes. *Tanna* is a very prolific grain, and hardly requires any cultivation. The *plantain* has a pleasant flavour, and no quantity eaten of it has been found to injure the stomach. There are also two species of the bread fruit tree. *Cardamons* grow in the south east part of the island, particularly in the neighbourhood of Matura; the seeds in taste resemble our carraways, and are used for seasoning to various dishes. The principal tropical fruits here grow spontaneously in the woods in the greatest abundance.

Precious Stones and Minerals.—Ceylon abounds in minerals, and has been rendered famous for its precious stones, of which we find not less than about twenty sorts. The *sapphire*, *amethyst*, *aqua marine*, and *tourmaline*, are equal to those of any other country. We have besides the *ruby*, *diamond*; the *tourmalines* are of various colours, the *topaz*, *blue sapphire* and *green sapphire*, the *white crystal*, *yellow*, *brown*, and *black crystals*, *cat's eye*, a species of opal *cornelians*, and other stones of the same description in great plenty. Many of these are cut for rings, buttons, and other ornaments. The whitest pearls in abundance off the coast. Lead, tin, and iron ores are found in the interior, but they are never wrought or applied to any purpose. There are also mines of quicksilver, but which do not appear to be much wrought."

Exports and Imports.—The exports of Ceylon are principally cinnamon and pepper, the staple spices of the island, which are annually shipped for Europe in vessels which touch there on purpose in their voyage from Madras and Bengal.—*Arrack*, which is made in the

EXPLANATORY NOTES, *continued.*

neighbourhood of Columbo and the other districts on the west coast, and which is sent to our settlements of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay.—Coya rope or cordage, which is manufactured in the island, and a quantity of which is supplied to the navy. There is also exported coffee, sugar, betel nut, copper, spices, timber, tobacco, naval stores, elephants' teeth, drugs, gunnies, palmyras, &c. And the Moors and Malabars, who reside there for the purpose, export betel leaf, areka nut, jaggery (a sort of coarse blackish sugar) cocoa nuts, oil, honey, bees wax, cardamoms, coral, ivory, fruit, &c. The imports into Ceylon consist of coarse cotton cloths, and callicoes, pieces of printed or painted cloths for women's apparel, coarse muslins, handkerchiefs, palampoes, stockings, china ware, tin, copper, silks, velvets, nankeens, umbrellas, straw hats, toys, a great quantity of rice, and various other articles. The exports may be fairly estimated on an average at 1,500,000*l.* per annum, and the imports perhaps not less than £1,000,000.

VALUE.

Public Property.—The forts, barracks, arsenals, storehouses, magazines, and all public buildings in the island of Ceylon cannot be worth less than 2,000,000*l.* as they could not now be built for 3,000,000*l.*

Private Property.—The cultivated lands, producing the most valuable articles of commerce, are taken at the very low average of 10*l.* per acre, in which are included all buildings, stock, and agricultural utensils, and the uncultivated at 10*s.*; the former, about 500,000 acres, amounting to 5,000,000*l.* and the latter 1,500,000, as already stated, to 750,000*l.* It is conceived, that there are 8,000 buildings in the towns of Columbo, Trincomalee, and Jaffna, which with the merchandize, furniture, &c. in them estimated at an average of somewhat more than 300*l.* each would amount to 2,400,000*l.* The colonial shipping may be valued at 120,000*l.* being 10,000 tons at 12*l.* sterling per ton. Money is so much an article of commerce in Ceylon, that it is impossible to state with precision what is the true circulating medium, there being sometimes to a considerable amount of gold and silver coin in circulation, and sometimes a great scarcity. The copper money remains in the island, as it passes nowhere else. There may perhaps be in the whole 100,000*l.* circulating, taken as a medium of different periods. Total 10,420,000*l.*

(B) ISLE OF FRANCE, OR MAURITIUS.

Population.—It appears from a publication respecting this island in 1811, that it contains 100,000 inhabitants, Viscount de Vaux, in page 566 of his history of the Mauritius has 65,000; probably somewhat more than a medium of both may be found correct.

Lands.—According to the Abbé de la Caille, the Isle of France has a surface which measures 432,680 acres, of which about 80,000 are cultivated, and perhaps 152,680 are fit for the purpose of cultivation, allowing the remaining 200,000 for mountains of great extent, and many ponds in the interior, and about 60 rivulets.

Colonial Shipping.—It is affirmed that the trade carried on with different parts of India and Madagascar cannot employ less than 3000 tons of shipping.

Productions.—The following is an account of the principal productions of this colony on an average of years:—

Coffee 6,000 bales of 100 lbs.
Indigo 300,000 lbs.
Cotton 2,000 bales of 250 lbs.
Sugar 20,000,000 lbs.
Cloves 20,000 lbs.

These and other minor articles, together with cattle, poultry, and esculent roots raised annually are calculated to amount to 905,000*l.*

Exports and Imports.—The exports consist of the above-mentioned productions. The imports are linen, cotton, and stuffs from the coast of Coromandel and Bengal; China ware and silk from China; corn is partly of native growth, and partly brought from the Isle of Bourbon; and some rice from Madagascar, and different parts of India.

VALUE.

Public Property.—Port Louis, the principal town, is defended by batteries mounting about 190 pieces of artillery, aided by the contiguous island of Tonneliers, which is armed with 60 mortars and pieces of large calibre, with furnaces for heating shot, and by Port Blanc mounting 35 guns, besides a new mortar battery; there are also other detached works of defence, which line the shore for some distance. The fortifications, artillery, arsenals, barracks, and public buildings of every description in this island may be fairly estimated at 800,000*l.*

Private Property.—The negro labourers in the Isle of France are taken at the same moderate average as in the West India colonies, viz. 55*l.* each, amounting for 70,000 to 3,850,000*l.*—And the cultivated and uncultivated lands, the former at 20*l.* per acre, and the latter at 1*l.*—We have also adopted the same principles of calculation as for similar articles in the West India colonies (see Table, No. 9.) in estimating the buildings, stock, utensils, &c. on estates. In Port Louis, there are about 6,000 houses. The buildings are well stocked with merchandize, furniture, &c. amounting perhaps to more than 2,400,000*l.* The shipping are estimated at only 12*l.* sterling per ton. There may be about 50,000*l.* of specie in circulation, being not 1*l.* for each inhabitant. Total 10,212,340*l.*

CHAPTER XIII.

ON THE BRITISH SETTLEMENT OF NEW SOUTH WALES.

Situation of New South Wales.—Discovered by Captain Cook in 1770.—Botany Bay.—A Colony established for Convicts under Captain Philip in 1788.—Town of Sydney built near Port Jackson.—General appearance of the Country.—Climate.—Trees.—Quadrupeds.—Birds.—Characteristic of the natives.—Jurisdiction of the Governor.—Scite, and description of Sydney. Norfolk Island discovered by Captain Cook in 1774, since abandoned.—Substance of the Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons respecting New South Wales in 1812.—Population.—Soil.—Stock.—Abundance of Corn.—Circulating medium.—Productions. Exports.—Abuses in levying Imposts, since remedied.—Proportion of inhabitants victualled from the public Stores.—Courts of Judicature and Criminal Jurisdiction.—Laws concerning Convicts.—Punishments.—Alteration in the system of criminal Jurisprudence proposed.—Qualifications required on persons applying for Grants of Land.—Religious Toleration.—Churches. Public Buildings.—Regulations on the arrival of a Transport with Convicts.—Employment. Mode of inflicting Punishment.—Distinction between Convicts in the service of Government, and those employed by Settlers.—Comparison of both in respect to their habits, expence, and labour.—Proportion of Men to Women.—At the expiration of the period of Transportation Convicts allowed to return to this Country, or to remain there with a provision for their settlement.—Enormous expence of £2,465,182 sterling for transporting and maintaining Convicts since the establishment of the Colony.—Only one-fourth or one-fifth of the present population Convicts.—Discouragements with regard to Trade.—Population lost to the Parent State.—Reasons assigned for recommending their removal to the Cape of Good Hope, or to British North America.—Statistical Table, No. 12, exhibiting the Power, Resources, and Value of the Colony.

THE Colony of New South Wales (a name given to a part of the coast of New Holland) was first discovered by Captain Cook in 1770. A very favourable report had been given of a district of this immense Island, which from the numerous herbs found in the country was named Botany Bay by Sir Joseph Banks, who accompanied this great and much lamented circumnavigator.

Great difficulties having been opposed to the disposal of convicts sentenced to transportation after the commencement of the American War, his Majesty's then government, induced by the favourable report which had been made of the prolific nature of the soil, and the salubrity of the climate, determined to establish a colony for the reception and employment of convicts in this distant region of the world. And accordingly, in the month of May 1787, Captain Philip, having been appointed governor, proceeded to Botany Bay with 558 male and 220 female convicts total 778, and a detachment of marines. The ships arrived at Botany Bay in January 1788, but finding considerable difficulties opposed to a settlement on this spot, Governor Philip fixed on Port Jackson, farther to the north, to which he gave the name of Sydney Cove, where the settlement was ultimately formed, and the town of Sydney built.

A vast chain of mountains about sixty miles inland runs nearly in a North direction further than the eye can reach. The general face of the country is diversified with gentle risings and small winding valleys covered for the most part with large spreading trees, which afford a succession of leaves in all seasons, while in those lands which are divested of wood are found a great variety of flowery shrubs almost all new to Europeans, but of little fragrance. The heat is never excessive in the summer, nor the cold severe in the winter. The Quadrupeds, which have as yet been discovered, are very few in number, and chiefly confined to the opossum species. The Birds are numerous, and their plumage is generally very beautiful.

The natives appear to be the most miserable and degraded of the human race. They live upon the miserable pittance they can pick up in the woods, but on the sea coast the principal part of their food is fish, and in obtaining it they discover both ingenuity and dexterity. They are few in number, considering the extent of the country. The interior parts are supposed to be uninhabited.

The jurisdiction of the Governor of New South Wales extends from $10^{\circ} 37'$ to $43^{\circ} 49'$ South latitude. From the sea coast it extends Westward as far as 135° East longitude and thence proceeding in an easterly direction includes all islands in the Pacific Ocean within the latitude above mentioned.

The town of Sydney is situated on the South side of Port Jackson longitude 170° East, latitude $33^{\circ} 48'$ South. It contains a handsome church, an orphan school, a commodious gaol, a military hospital, a naval yard, with public buildings for the residence of the Governor and Lieutenant Governor, and the Chief Judge, and Commissary.

In 1774, Captain Cook first discovered Norfolk Island, where a settlement was made in 1788 by a detachment sent from Port Jackson. It is situated in latitude $29^{\circ} 4'$ South, longitude $168^{\circ} 12'$ East, but being found inconvenient, it has been abandoned.

On the 10th July 1812, a select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to enquire into the manner in which sentences of Transportation are executed, and the effects which have been produced by that mode of punishment, and who were empowered to report

their observations on the minutes of evidence taken before them to the House—have reported in substance as follows:—

	Inhabitants.
That the most considerable District is that of Sydney, containing on the	
1st of March 1810	6,158
Paramatta contains	1,807
Hawkesbury	2,389
Newcastle	100
Total	10,454

Of these 5513 are men, and 2220 women, and 2,721 children. And of these from one fourth to one fifth are convicts. The troops are in number 1,100, and the remainder are free persons. To which may be added the settlements of Port Dalrymple and Hobart's Town in Van Diemen's land, about five degrees South of Sydney, containing 1321 inhabitants; and at the date of the last return 177 were living in Norfolk Island, but orders had been sent out for its total abandonment.

Beyond sixty miles from Sydney the country appears no where practicable for agricultural purposes, and in many places the diameter of the habitable country is much less: In length it extends from Port Stephens to Port James, comprising from North to South about four degrees. Beyond there it is stated that the Colony will not be capable of extension, and of the land within these boundaries, about one half is said to be absolutely barren. The ground actually in cultivation amounts to rather more than 21,000 acres, and 74,000 acres are held in pasture. The stock is considerable; according to the return made in 1810, it stood as follows:

Horses	521
Mares	593
Bulls	193
Cows	6,351
Oxen	4,732
Sheep	33,818
Goats	1,732
Hogs	8,992

Total of Animals 56,932

Of the cattle a small proportion is kept by Government, of which part is killed for the supply of the public stores and the remainder is made use of to stock the Farms of new settlers.

It appears with some exceptions when the crops have failed from inundations and

other accidental causes, that the Colony has been able wholly to supply itself with corn; but that it is still necessary to continue to a certain extent the importation of salted provisions. The soil and climate are described to be extremely fine, healthy, and productive. Diseases, excepting such as arise from intemperance or accident, are little known.

The currency of the Colony consists chiefly of Government paper and copper money, but from its scarcity many of the transactions are carried on by barter. To remedy this inconvenience a supply of silver coin to the amount of £10,000 has lately been sent to the Colony.

The exportations from the Colony have hitherto consisted of *Oil, Seal-skins, Coals, and Wool*. The fisheries appear to have been much neglected, and the Iron Ore, of which there is abundance of a fine quality, has not been worked. The trade in coals and skins is the most thriving, but straightened by the restrictions in favour of the East India Company. The stock of sheep is not yet sufficient to make wool a large article of exportation. The cultivation of hemp has been less attended to than might have been expected. A profitable trade (though illegal) has at times been carried on with the South Sea Islands and China.

Woollen Manufactories, Potteries, and Breweries have been established, but not with any great success. The commercial regulations of the Colony have in many instances been so impolitic as much to discourage mercantile speculation. A maximum was imposed by the governor on all imported merchandize, and at this price often too low to afford a fair profit to the trader. The whole cargo was distributed among the civil and military officers, who alone had liberty to purchase; and articles of the first necessity were afterwards retailed by them at enormous profits to the poorer settlers.

Part of these abuses was corrected in the year 1800; but in the traffic in spirituous liquors they continued to a very late period. These abuses are however also remedied, and the maximum in all instances has been abolished. The eagerness for spirituous liquors has been excessive in the Colony, and the gains have been enormous. Much has been obtained by illicit trade of a bad quality (Rum from Bengal and America). Private stills, in spite of every precaution, are numerous in the Colony.

Of 10,452 inhabitants in the Colony, 4,277 are wholly or in great part victualled from the public stores, and three-fifths parts of the corn brought to Market are purchased by the governor at a price over which by the largeness of his demand he has always a power of control, so as scarcely to afford the farmers a fair profit for their produce; and in the distant parts of the settlement they have been known to feed their pigs with corn, for which they could not obtain a sufficient price.

The Courts of Judicature in the Colony are instituted by commission. The Civil Court is called the Court of Civil Jurisdiction, and consists of a Judge Advocate and two respectable inhabitants of the Colony, appointed by the Governor, who have full power to hear and determine in a summary way all manner of personal pleas whatsoever. They have also power to grant probates of wills and administrations of the personal estates

of Intestates. Where the parties feel themselves aggrieved an appeal lies to the Governor, or Lieutenant Governor in his absence with the privilege of appealing ultimately to the King in council if the sum shall exceed £ 300.

It appears that no Convict can, during the time of his servitude, sue or be sued in these courts, or suffer imprisonment for any debt incurred. By the same commission a court of Criminal Jurisdiction is established under the Act of 27 Geo. III. cap. 2. It is a Court of Record. It consists of a Judge Advocate, and six officers of the sea and land service to be convened by a precept from the governor under his hand and seal with power (after having taken the oaths directed in the commission) to hear and determine all crimes committed within the settlement, and to cause punishment to be inflicted conformable to the laws of England as nearly as may be according to the circumstances of the place and the inhabitants. The verdict to be regulated by a majority of the court, and if the offence be capital the Court may pronounce judgement of death or otherwise as to the Court shall seem meet, if the offence does not amount to the punishment of death, but unless five of the judges concur in opinion the punishment of death shall not take place until the King's pleasure is had thereon; nor shall any execution take place without the consent of the governor, who has power to suspend it until his Majesty's pleasure is known.

The system of criminal Jurisprudence is disapproved by the Committee of the House of Commons, who conceive it may be altered with great advantage to the Colony, under a presumption that from the increase of respectable inhabitants the necessity of dispensing with the trial by Jury has ceased to exist.

The Governor for the time being has a power of making grants of land; and many settlers have been sent out from this country by Government, to whom grants of land sometimes to a large amount have been made, and of late in the selections which have been made the precaution has been used for the purpose of ascertaining that the persons selected not only possessed agricultural knowledge, but capitals sufficient to establish themselves in the Colony without the assistance of government, and moreover that they were persons of known respectability.

Churches have been built at Sydney and Paramatta; and at Hawkesbury Divine Service is performed in houses appropriated to that purpose; and in each of these districts clergymen have been appointed with sufficient provision from Government. No restraint is imposed on those professing a different religion, and Roman Catholic Clergymen have been allowed to perform the rites of their church. Registers of Baptisms, Marriages, and Burials have been regularly kept. Many schools have been established. The Orphan Female School, supported by Port duties and fines, has flourished almost from the first settlement of the Colony, and a Male Orphan School on a similar plan has lately been established.

It is usual, on the arrival of a Transport with Convicts, to issue orders for returns of the number of men wanted, with the land in cultivation by each settler. The age, trade,

character, and capacity of the convicts are as far as possible investigated. The Artificers are generally reserved for the service of Government, and as many of the others as may be wanted. Persons who have been in higher situations have tickets of leave given them, by which they have liberty to provide for themselves, and are exempt from all compulsory labour. Similar tickets are given to persons unused to active employment, as goldsmiths, and others. The remainder are distributed among the settlers, as labourers and servants.

The Convicts in the service of Government are divided into gangs. Every gang has an overseer, and every two or three gangs a superintendant. These are frequently chosen from those convicts who best conduct themselves. They work from six o'clock in the morning until three in the afternoon, and the remainder of the day is allowed to them to be spent either in amusement or profitable labour for themselves. They are clothed, fed, and for the most part lodged by Government; and latterly the food and clothing have been good, and generally in sufficient abundance.

No Convict can be punished without the order of a Bench of Magistrates, which extends from 25 to 300 lashes. In heavy punishments the sanction of the Government is necessary. Another mode of punishment is to sentence the culprit to work a certain number of days in the gaol gang, where he must labour at some public work in irons from six in the morning until six at night.

The Convicts distributed among the settlers are clothed, supported, and lodged by them:—They work either by task or for the same number of hours as the Government Convicts, and when their set labour is finished they are allowed to work on their own account. The Master has no power of corporal punishment, which can only be inflicted by a Magistrate, he not being himself the master. If the servant feels himself aggrieved, or ill-treated by his master, he has a right of complaining to a Magistrate, who, if the complaint be well founded, has a power to deprive the master of his servant. No evidence has been adduced but in commendation of the treatment of the convicts and of its effects upon their morals and comfort.

Indeed, it is very manifest that where two or three Convicts are domiciled in a regular family, removed from their former companions, and forced into habits of industry and regularity, the chance of reformation must be infinitely greater than when they are worked in gangs, living with each other amidst all the inducements to vice, which such a town as Sydney must afford them. Nor is it to be lost sight of, that in the service of the settlers they are likely to acquire some knowledge of Farming, and that if from habit they become well behaved industrious servants, a further possibility is opened to them of becoming prosperous and respectable settlers. The expence of each Convict in the service of Government is about £40 a year. At the same time a free labourer at Sydney could be hired for £70, but he would do nearly twice as much work.

The number of men in proportion to the Women Convicts was as *two to one*, to which in a great measure is attributed the prevalence of prostitution. They have been

generally distributed among such of the inhabitants as demanded them. At the expiration of the time, to which the Convicts have been sentenced, their freedom is at once obtained; and they are at liberty either to return to this country, or to settle in New South Wales, in which last case a grant of 40 acres of land is made to the unmarried men, and something for the wife and each child of those that are married, with tools and stock (which they cannot alienate) and they are besides victualled for 18 months from the Government stores. In this manner, they have an opportunity of establishing themselves in independence and by proper conduct to regain a respectable place in society; and such instances your Committee are glad to learn are not unfrequent.

Twenty two years have elapsed from 1788 to 1810 since the Colony of New South Wales was first settled, during which period, or rather from 1787, when the Convicts were first embarked, to the year 1813, comprising 26 years, the parliamentary grants for the expence of transporting and maintaining the Convicts, including the naval expences and the civil and military establishments, as detailed in page 222 of this Work, have amounted to the enormous sum of £2,465,182 sterling; through which medium, according to the Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons in 1812—only 5513 Men, 2220 Women, and 2721 Children were in existence in the Colony in 1810, making in the whole 11,952 inhabitants, including 1321 in Van Diemen's land and 177 in Norfolk Island; and of these only from one-fourth to one-fifth part were Convicts.

It appears only necessary to state this simple fact, in order to shew the impolicy of establishing a settlement in this distant region of the world, and the slender expectation from the facts which have been disclosed of its ever proving otherwise than a heavy expence to this country, without any hope of remuneration from its trade or any other advantage with respect to the better disposal of criminal offenders which may not be attained under other arrangements, at one tenth part of the expence.

It must ever be lamented, that in the choice of difficulties at the time the British Government should have been induced to have recourse to such an expedient. None of those valuable articles of commerce are as yet attempted or expected to be produced which can alone yield a profit in Europe, loaded with so enormous a freight as such a lengthened voyage will require. Even if the inhabitants were to acquire the means of purchasing British Manufactures, they have no medium through which they could make remittances.

The ships destined to carry out merchandize could obtain no freights in return. Neither hemp, flax, nor cotton (were these articles abundant in the Colony) could enter into competition with the same raw materials brought from less distant quarters of the world, burthened as they must be with a treble freight and a treble insurance, while the wages of labour in the Colony being higher than in other countries must enhance the price of all the productions of the soil. An accession of people, and a trade with the neighbouring countries in Asia and the Pacific Ocean would not benefit the parent state.

Under such circumstances, the British population at New South Wales may be said to be lost to the nation. Even if they could support themselves, the enormous expence of a civil and military establishment must be continued. The same population at the Cape of Good Hope, or in North America would, on the contrary, be highly beneficial; the same arrangements with regard to the Convicts would be easy and practicable, while their labour would be highly productive to the parent state by promoting Navigation and Commerce, and the consumption of British Manufactures, without any expence in the civil or military establishments in addition to what is already incurred.

The reader is referred to the Table, No. 12, with copious explanatory notes, annexed to this chapter, for a general view of the power, resources, and value of the Colony.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE OF NEW SOUTH WALES,† AND ITS DEPENDENCIES;

Shewing the Population, Number of Acres of Land cultivated, Shipping, Value of Productions raised, Imports and Exports, Circulating Specie; and an Estimate of the Amount of Public and Private Property in the Settlement, as a Dependency of Great Britain.—From Authentic Documents and the best accessible information. (1812.)

POWER AND RESOURCES.		VALUE.		RECAPITULATION.	
Population:—(A)	Persons.	PUBLIC PROPERTY:—		Public Property	£100,000
Troops	2,291	Estimated Value of Barracks, Arsenals, Public Stores, and all	£	Private Idem	760,000
Convicts, or Prisoners	1,711	Public Buildings (F)	100,000		<u>£860,000</u>
Settlers and Free Persons	7,948				
Total	<u>11,950</u>	PRIVATE PROPERTY:—			
Lands:—(B)		Estimated Value of Lands in cultivation and in pas-	£		
100,000 Acres cultivated.		ture (G) viz. 100,000 Acres at £5 per Acre	500,000		
<i>Ad infinitum</i> uncultivated.		Estimated Value of Houses, Stores, Merchandize,	250,000		
		Furniture, &c. (H)	10,000		
Shipping:—(C)		Money in circulation, estimated at (I)	10,000		
12 Vessels.				Grand Total	<u>£860,000</u>
3,000 Tons.					
144 Men.					
Estimated Value of Productions raised annually,					
including Esculents and Fruits (D)	£169,500				
Estimated Value of Exports	£50,000				
Idem . Idem Imports (E)	£59,750				

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

- (A) The population is stated from Numbers 2 and 3 of the Appendix to the Report from the Select Committee on Transportation, printed by order of the House of Commons on the 10th July 1812.
- (B) It appears from the above-mentioned Report that rather more than 21,000 acres are cultivated, and that 74,000 are held in pasture, together 95,000, to which is to be added, perhaps 5,000 cultivated in Van Diemen's Land: Total 100,000 acres.
- (C) Colonel Collins has inserted in his account of this settlement a list of the vessels which arrived from all parts, from the date of its settlement in 1788 to the year 1800. The population and trade have however greatly increased since that period.
- (D) Besides animals or stock (for which see page 409) there are raised corn, maize, potatoes, turnips, &c. and vegetables and fruits from the beginning to the end of the year. So that the productions annually raised for consumption, including stock, may be fairly averaged at £10 per head for the whole population, amounting to £119,500. And the exports, consisting of oil, seal skins, coals, wood, &c. at £50,000, as above stated, together £169,500.
- (E) We have no data for estimating the imports into the colony, but from the quantity of liquors and other articles of consumption, it is extremely probable they cannot amount to less than a sum equal to £5 per head per annum calculated on the total number of inhabitants.
- (F) A list of all the public buildings in the settlement is to be seen in Col. Collins's account, 2d Vol. pages 308 to 313. We learn from the Report from the Select Committee on Transportation in July 1812 (page 14) that "the expences of the colony are considerable,—that the bills drawn in the year 1810 amounted to £72,600, being a great increase upon any preceding year, and the expenditure of the year 1811 promised to be still greater." The public stores, barracks, arsenals, and public buildings of every description, must have cost a sum greatly exceeding £100,000.
- (G) £5 per acre is deemed a very moderate average for the land above-mentioned, a great part of which is now in cultivation.
- (H) Two thousand buildings of every description averaged at £100 would amount to £200,000. Merchandize, furniture, and other property, £50,000: Total £250,000.
- (I) £550 in copper were sent out in 1799 to remedy the inconvenience under which the inhabitants laboured in making small payments. And it appears from the Report from the Select Committee on Transportation, printed the 10th July 1812, that £10,000 in silver coin have lately been sent to the colony, great inconvenience having been experienced from a scarcity of money, and from wheat and cattle having in the courts of justice there been considered as a legal tender in payment of debts.

† Governor Phillip, in his account of the settlement, states that a small squadron, consisting of eleven sail, having on board 828 convicts, and a detachment of marines, sailed from England on the 13th May 1787, and after calling at the Canary Isles, Rio de Janeiro, and the Cape of Good Hope, arrived at Botany Bay on the 18th January 1788. Botany Bay being found much exposed to strong winds from the eastward, and so shallow as not to admit vessels of a moderate draught, and the low lands in its immediate neighbourhood a perfect swamp; the Governor deemed it necessary to have the harbour and country about Port Jackson explored, distant about three leagues, and finding it an eligible situation for the establishment of a colony, with a fine harbour capable of containing 1000 sail of shipping, on the 25th of the same month he proceeded with the squadron under his command to Port Jackson, where they landed on the south side at a spot called Sydney Cove, and began the settlement. Sydney Town has since risen on the scite, and is the seat of government. There are settlements also at Port Dalrymple, and Hobart's Town in Van Diemen's Land, which is a Dependency of New South Wales. Norfolk Island, another Dependency, has been abandoned.

CHAPTER XIV.

ON THE RESOURCES WHICH THE NATION POSSESSES FOR REWARDING AND AFFORDING PROFITABLE EMPLOYMENT FOR THE MILITARY AND NAVAL OFFICERS, SOLDIERS, AND SEAMEN WHO MAY BE DEPRIVED OF ADEQUATE MEANS OF SUBSISTENCE, IN CONSEQUENCE OF THE RETURN OF PEACE.

A general Peace happily concluded between the Allied Powers and France.—The new situation in which the United Kingdom will be placed, in consequence of this important event.—An estimate of the number of Persons employed in the Army and Navy and Civil employments who must be discharged.—The necessity of making provision for their support, and with a view to render their future pursuits beneficial to themselves and the parent state.—Measures suggested for that purpose.—The powers possessed by Government to carry these measures into effect without inconvenience, or any pecuniary sacrifice which will not prove ultimately beneficial.—Resources for the beneficial employment of the class discharged from the Navy.—Resources also applicable to the Army.—Reasons assigned for the early adoption of the measure.—Its practicability explained.—Its advantages elucidated.—Specific details relative to the mode of carrying the design into execution.—Reflections on the effects of the Peace.—On the means of removing the inconveniences, which may arise from a diminution of trade now divided among the different nations of Europe.—A crisis thereby created in the state of society in the United Kingdom.—The necessity of making this crisis by previous arrangements calculated to procure labour for the whole of the population.—Facilities suggested for the attainment of this object.—Suggestions offered with a view to the disposal and reformation of criminal and idle and disorderly persons, whose numbers must now increase.—Suggestions offered for the beneficial employment of such persons.—The immense sacrifices made by the British Government.—The great merit of the Allied Sovereigns in contributing to the restoration of Peace.—Details of the services rendered by the British Government and her Armies in bringing the contest to a favourable issue.—The peculiar merit of the British Government in this respect elucidated and explained.

AT the period when the author was directing his attention to the subject matter of the two preceding Chapters, a Treaty of Peace has been happily concluded between the Allied Powers and the French Government. This great and important event after a War of more than twenty years will imperiously demand various new arrangements in the national economy.

The many individuals holding superior and inferior ranks in society, who must suddenly be deprived of the means of subsistence, deserve serious attention. The num-

Officers in the Naval departments, including Warrant Officers and Midshipmen	13,813	
. and Marines	1,128	
Officers in the Military department, including the artillery, engineers, and Militia	21,000—	35,941
Officers in the Commissariat and other departments of Government, whose services will not be required during Peace }	2,000	
Seamen and Marines, who at present compose the British navy	171,540	37,941
Non-commissioned Officers and Privates, who compose the British army, including the Militia	280,000—	451,540
Total	<u>489,481</u>	

When it is, however, considered that notwithstanding the drains occasioned by a War of upwards of twenty years, the supply both of agricultural and handicraft labourers has generally exceeded the demand; and as all the maritime nations of Europe must now share in that general trade from which they were in a great measure excluded during the War, and as the population of the United Kingdom is now supposed to add to its number an additional million every five years, it is plain to demonstration that some beneficial and desirable resource must be found for the brave men, who have endured the excessive fatigues of War, and successfully encountered the enemy in almost every quarter of the world.

To those who have followed maritime occupations, the prolific fisheries in the Gulph of St. Lawrence and the Bay of Canso hold out a fine harvest, as the reward of industry, while to the officers of the army, whose sole dependence is on their half-pay, and particularly to those in the militia regiments who have not even this scanty subsistence, a freehold property in the fertile lands in Upper Canada, the Cape of Good Hope, and the West

Indies would not only afford ample employment, but that species of ultimate ease and comfort which is not accessible in the parent state.

All the British colonies being now settled with interstices of crown lands between the different farms and plantations, the new settlers will experience few of those hardships and inconveniences, which attached to those who first established themselves in countries without a population or the means of procuring food for the first year. These difficulties are removed, and the expence of forming establishments greatly lessened.

To the officers and seamen of the navy, whose habits enable them to prosecute the fisheries, a two-fold advantage attaches. While they are enabled to cultivate their freeholds for the benefit of themselves and their posterity, they have a double resource in the fisheries. They would have the monopoly of the British West India Islands to the extent of nearly a million sterling, heretofore procured in the British American Seas by the inhabitants of the United States, in consequence of the thinness of the population in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward's Island, rendering it impossible to furnish the necessary supplies. They would also have an equal chance in the markets of Europe.

For the purpose of holding out encouragement to lieutenants, masters, midshipmen, and warrant officers who have served with reputation in the navy, there is no doubt but liberal grants of land would be made on the banks of the Bay of Fundy, and in Prince Edward's Island, where the double object of agriculture and fisheries could be carried on, and where the fish comprising great varieties are to be procured with comparatively little labour from the incredible quantities, with which these seas abound without the necessity of removing any distance from the land. It is impossible to calculate the value of these fisheries, or the advantages which might be derived by an industrious maritime population sedulously pursuing this branch of trade.

To the captains, subalterns, and privates of the army, an option may be given as to the country to which they would wish to remove. Upper Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, may possibly be the choice of some, while others, who have been accustomed to tropical climates, may prefer lands in the West Indies, at the Cape of Good Hope, or the Mauritius, in all which labour and population are much wanted, and where the produce of the soil, particularly in the West Indies and the Cape, admits of the cultivation of a great variety of valuable minor staples in addition to grain and provisions.

It might be possible for every officer to carry with him a certain number of seamen or soldiers, who had been commanded by him during the War, and who, in addition to liberal wages or a share in the fisheries, should be entitled to a free grant of a certain portion of land after remaining in the service of their employers five years.

Where officers are entitled to half-pay an anticipation of 5 years would probably be granted by Government in order to form a capital, and, as a further encouragement, the camp furniture of the army and various useful domestic articles taken from dismantled barracks and from ships of war laid up in ordinary, which, although they cost much

money, would sell for little or nothing, might be distributed among the settlers, with a view to enable them to furnish their dwellings, and to carry on the pursuits of husbandry and the fisheries. For this boon the nation would be amply repaid by the additional demand for British manufactures, and the increase of trade and navigation, which would be created through the medium of well directed and prolific industry.

No country in the world ever possessed the means to so great an extent of placing the brave men, who have fought her battles, in situations advantageous to themselves and their country, as the United Kingdom at this time; and this too at the expence of that species of sacrifice, which a husbandman makes when he throws the seed into the ground, since to the parent state they will ultimately prove most abundant. In addition to the increase of property thus created by the national family, a hardy race of men will be reared for the navy and army in the event of future wars.

The great art of Government is by wise and appropriate regulations to render the national industry as productive as possible by distributing the population in such manner as to attain this object to the fullest extent. The distribution, however, must be the voluntary act of the people. They must be convinced that it is to promote their interest, and add to their comfort and happiness. Encouragements must be held out calculated to generate a reasonable hope that their expectations will be realized.

The place of settlement should be left to the choice of those who might be inclined to improve their circumstances in life by emigration, and those hopes should not be disappointed by any relaxation on the part of Government. The system, as it relates to every colony, should be previously organized according to local circumstances; and the species of encouragement should be clearly defined. The allotments of land should be made, and every thing prepared under the direction of commissioners on the spot, previous to any embarkation, and the passage should be at the expence of Government.

The masters, midshipmen, and warrant officers in the British navy comprise a body of men amounting in the whole to 9,000; of these at least 7,000 must be discharged. They cannot expect superior situations in commercial ships;—and if inferior ones were accessible, the degradation and the low wages would render them unhappy. It would, moreover, afford but a scanty subsistence.

The war happily just terminated from the vast equipments which were necessary and from its unexampled continuance has augmented the maritime profession to an extent very far beyond what took place in former wars. The same is the case with the officers and non-commissioned officers of the army, and with a very numerous class of people, who have been supported by their labour in fabricating and furnishing the various articles required both by the sea and land forces. All these must suddenly become idle, while from the state of the country it should seem that every branch of industry, whether agricultural or manufacturing, is at present, and indeed has generally been amply supplied with labourers of every class and description.

Peace is certainly one of the greatest blessings which can be conferred upon any nation; yet, in the present instance, it will not add to the resources for either maritime or manufacturing labour in the United Kingdom. The trade which chiefly centered in this country, in consequence of the singular features which the war assumed, must now be divided among all the maritime countries in Europe.

The monopoly which secured to this country the supplies required by the restored colonies, and the advantages resulting from the produce of these colonies centering in this country, must pass into other hands. The nations, to whom they have been ceded by the Treaties of Peace, will henceforth enjoy these monopolies. This is not stated as a subject of complaint, nor is the policy of the cessions contested. But it is obvious that the additional resource for labour, which was created through the medium of these possessions, must cease to exist. The individuals who performed this labour, whether maritime or otherwise, have lost this resource without finding another.

The loss, however, will not be unfortunate for the country. On the contrary, it will prove beneficial, if it shall tend to arrangements, which shall open these other valuable and prolific resources which this nation possesses beyond any other country perhaps in the world;—resources which lie dormant for want of that labour, skill, and capital, which, to a certain extent, must become a drug in the parent state, but which are in great demand in the colonies.

It has been already stated, that much is due to the brave men in the different departments of the navy and army, who, amidst incalculable fatigues and dangers, have nobly maintained the honour of their country, and ultimately raised it to the proud height to which it has arrived. To these men the resources which the colonies possess will enable the Crown and the Legislature to confer ample rewards, which ought not to be dispensed with a sparing hand. Enough has been said in the course of this work to shew, that it is scarcely possible to confer benefits in this way without procuring, in return, advantages still more productive to the parent state.

It is impossible to confer a greater blessing upon a nation than by the adoption of practicable arrangements, which will render the demand for labour somewhat more than equal to the supply. On the other hand, there cannot be a greater calamity than that which exhibits a surplus population, who must be clothed and fed—willing to labour, but without the means of finding employment.

That such a crisis is to be apprehended in this country no person will deny, who has looked accurately into the state of society, in all its intricacies and ramifications, and contemplates at the same time the period which has arrived when vast numbers must cease to receive the wages of the state, and when others, whose support depended on the continuance of the war, can no longer find the means of subsistence.

In this situation, the multitude become desperate,—criminal delinquency pervades every part of the country; the demand for punishment increases; and the general hap-

piness and comfort of the nation are abridged. The privileges of innocence are every where invaded, and the persons and property of the subject are rendered insecure.

Such a state of society is the never-failing result of an overflowing population, where the food reared is not equal to the demand, and where the means of obtaining it by *the disposal of the produce of labour* (the only medium through which it can be procured by the mass of the people) is only accessible to a certain part of the community.

It ought not to escape notice, that while the happy termination of the war throws back into the peaceful walks of life a great number of individuals, who derived their support in the navy and army from the national purse, an increased and increasing population enters into competition with the different classes, not only for that species of subsistence which is obtained from manual labour, but also for all the superior situations in society, and at a period too when the number of these higher situations must necessarily be greatly abridged.

Amongst the officers of the navy and army, who must retire upon half pay, (liberal perhaps when the national resources are considered, but totally inadequate to the means of upholding the rank they have sustained,) there are many men of great enterprize and talents, who, if a field were opened to them in the colonies, under proper encouragement, would not only facilitate their general improvement, but, by augmenting their productions, would also increase the resources of the British Empire, while under their guidance, and in the prosecution of agricultural and other pursuits, a profitable and liberal return would be found for the labour of those who could not dispose of it at all, or at least to any advantage in the parent state.

The long war, in which this country and the continent have been engaged, may be said to have given a new character to the state of society in every part of Europe. There is no precedent in ancient or modern history of such a state of things. Experience, therefore, can afford but little aid. It is, however, a matter of great consolation, as has already been observed, that the British Government can meet the exigency under circumstances infinitely more favourable than any of the Nations of Europe, since the means exist whereby ample provision can be made for all classes of her redundant population, and that too in a manner which may be rendered not only profitable, but perfectly satisfactory to the individuals themselves.

Even in the character of labourers and servants, dispersed among the settlers in extended tracts of country, the unhappy culprits, who have been destined to expiate their offences in a distant land, may, through the medium of appropriate arrangements, be rendered useful to their country without incurring the enormous expences which attach to the present system; while the idle and dissolute characters, who are supported by the labour of the innocent part of the community, and contribute nothing to the resources of the state, may also, under proper regulations immediately connected with their own benefit, be rendered useful members of society in situations where temptations to vice cannot assail them, and where labour is indispensable for their support, and where also

no difficulty is opposed to the means of obtaining it, and nothing likely to occur calculated to disturb the progress of honest industry.

We are laudably anxious to improve the condition of the inhabitants of distant regions, where the benign lights of Christianity have not yet shone forth; but we forget how little its divine precepts influence the conduct of a great body of unhappy individuals at home.

To enumerate the scenes of vice and misery, the premature deaths, and the incalculable distress which attach to the unhappy prostitutes, whose increasing numbers not only in the Metropolis but in every considerable town in the United Kingdom would, in the details, be too painful—too shocking—too lamentable for public disclosure. What a happy change to these most miserable of human beings to be employed as servants in countries where their existence would depend on regularity, labour, and industry.

The male population, who support this mass of prostitution, are in many instances *idle* and *dissolute*, constituting not a few of those herds of depraved characters who live upon the labour of others, and do nothing to promote the interest or welfare of the state, and whose numbers must now increase.

Where obvious benefits and encouragement, although in a certain degree remote, are held out to individuals however reprehensible their pursuits in life may have been, always attended with intervals of distress, difficulty, and danger, little doubt can be entertained of many of them being found disposed to change their course of life, under the prospect of ultimately improving their condition through the medium of honest industry.

In all nations, where the greatest proportion of virtue pervades the people, there is the greatest degree of human happiness; where idleness and vice prevail, there is, on the contrary, the largest share of misery and distress.

CONCLUSION OF THE CHAPTER.

It is ardently to be hoped, that the exertions of the British Government, and the immense sacrifices of the people for the purpose of bringing the war to a happy conclusion, will not be forgotten by the Sovereigns of Europe, and that their gratitude, for the boons which they themselves have received, will excite in their minds a disposition long to preserve the relations of peace and friendship.

Without detracting from the merit due to the noble exertions of the Sovereigns of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, and other minor powers, in the late arduous struggle; and not forgetting the peculiar merit and exalted patriotism of the Citizens of Hamburgh, in being the first whose overt acts manifested their abhorrence of the then existing tyranny,

and the first free state who ventured to shew the example, and thereby to give an impetus to the military fervor which afterwards so nobly shone forth in the North of Germany;— It will not be difficult to prove, that great and meritorious as these exertions have been, their ultimate success is to be ascribed, under Providence, to British Councils, British Arms, and British Resources.

When Russia and Prussia determined, in 1813, to follow up the blow, which had crippled the enemy under circumstances where both nations were greatly exhausted, not only the treasure of this country was dealt out to these Sovereigns with an unsparing hand, but arms and military stores of every description, and army clothing, to an immense extent, to the Allied Armies, with an alacrity and an expedition that are beyond example, without which aids it would have been impossible to equip the armies, which were necessary to expel the enemy from Germany. Sweden was also subsidized, with a view to a hearty co-operation in the great cause.

By the policy of this country also, in supporting the armies in Spain at an almost incalculable expence, which tended in an eminent degree to narrow the resources of the then ruler of France, considerable aid was afforded by reducing his force in Germany. But still the extraordinary exertions of the enemy, in bringing forward (notwithstanding his recent losses in Russia) a most powerful and formidable army, so as to render the contest doubtful, after several severe actions an armistice was concluded, which might have terminated in an insecure and injurious peace, while the glorious victory of Vittoria in Spain, obtained by that great Captain, the immortal Duke of Wellington, gave new spirit to the Allies, and also operated as a stimulus to other powers, who had not yet come forward. At this critical moment, the British treasures were also laid open to Austria, in consequence of which the armies of that power were more effectually enabled to take the field, and the same example was followed by Bavaria, Wirtemburgh, Baden, and other minor powers.

It will not be attempted to be denied, that this combination of force could not have been obtained, nor could it have kept the field without the liberal aid of the British Government. And the result was, that the formidable armies of France were defeated at the great battle of Leipsic, and were ultimately driven across the Rhine, and into the territories of ancient France, which was soon after entered by the Allies, (still assisted by British subsidies,) in a northern direction, while the Duke of Wellington, commanding the armies of England, Spain, and Portugal, made a powerful diversion in the South, defeating the enemy in several severe actions.

By these combined efforts, invigorated and strengthened by the armies and resources of the United Kingdom, after various battles the Allies ultimately entered Paris. The Dynasty of the Usurper was instantly overthrown, and the lawful Sovereign restored to the throne of his ancestors, after suffering an exile of more than 20 years.

These great achievements and most important results have restored to Russia, Austria, and Prussia, all the extensive dominions which had been wrested from them during the

war. They have replaced upon the thrones of their ancestors the Kings of Spain, Portugal, and Sardinia, and most of the minor Sovereigns of Germany, who had been driven from their country by the common enemy; and they have ultimately procured for Europe, after a lengthened and devastating war, the blessings of peace, with every prospect of its being secure and lasting.

While the beneficent hand of Providence is humbly and gratefully acknowledged in producing these great events, it is impossible to withhold from Russia, Prussia, Austria, Bavaria, Wirtemburgh, Baden, and the other minor states in Germany, who embarked in this struggle, the just tribute of praise for the noble and spirited exertions which were made, and particularly for the personal share which the Emperors of Russia and Austria, and the King of Prussia sustained, and the privations and anxieties they must have experienced in the arduous contest, as well as for their forbearance and magnanimity when they became Conquerors, so unlike the conduct of the enemy; yet it is impossible to forget the superlative merits of the Duke of Wellington, and the brave army under his command, for the share they had in producing these happy results.

Still more must it for ever be engraven on the hearts of the Allies—the singular benefits they have derived from the Sovereign and people of the United Kingdom. While an insular situation and a powerful navy rendered this country invulnerable, the British Government and people nobly came forward in behalf of afflicted Europe. To effect its emancipation her blood and treasure flowed in streams. The people cheerfully submitted to the heaviest burdens to effect this object. Public and private benevolence was extended to heal the wounds of suffering humanity by the ravages of war in Portugal, Spain, Russia, and Germany. The liberal hand of the nation was stretched forth to alleviate the distresses of the Sovereign and loyal inhabitants of France, who, during the paroxysm of revolutionary frenzy, sought an asylum in the British dominions.

To almost every nation, which was oppressed, assistance was afforded the moment they manifested a disposition to assist themselves. Even France herself is principally indebted to this nation for the happy change which has taken place in her Government, so eminently calculated to produce tranquillity and happiness, after so many years of severe sufferings and tyranny. Her commerce is restored; all checks to industry removed; an exemption from oppressive taxes; the removal of the odious and heart-racking conscription; and a free Government.

Nor ought it ever to be forgotten by the emancipated nations of Europe, in which France is with great justice and propriety included, that in order to attain all these benefits the United Kingdom alone, in addition to all her other sacrifices, liberally yielded up to France not only all the most valuable of her colonies and dependencies, which had been captured during the war, but exonerated that nation from the payment of a very large balance of money due for the support of prisoners of war. The Allies

PRODUCTIVE LABOUR.

have received all their possessions. The compensation has been made by Great Britain alone.

These facts, so honourable to the British name and character, deserve to be recorded, that they may be ever in the view of the nations of Europe, who, reflecting on the calamities they have suffered during the greater part of the last 20 years, will know how to appreciate, and conciliate the friendship of Great Britain.

The only return that can be expected, is a free, equitable, and liberal intercourse of Commerce, and a total abolition of the Slave Trade, and this boon (if it can be so denominated) it is ardently to be hoped will not be withheld, when subjects of this nature become matter of future discussion.

FINIS.

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64	25 } <i>for for the further term of one year from the 10th April 1814 read until</i> 26 } <i>the 1st August 1814. With this the marginal note must correspond.</i>

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APPENDIX.

BRITISH EAST INDIA POSSESSIONS.

THE origin, rise and progress of the British Settlements in India are of a nature more novel and extraordinary than any event recorded in the page of history. It therefore becomes necessary to enter into some detail, in order to trace chronologically the various circumstances which have led to results which have astonished the world.

The first attempt to explore the countries of India was made in the reign of Henry the VIIIth by John Cabot, a Venetian, in the year 1497; but attempting to sail westward to China, the expedition of course failed. In 1548-9, his son, Sebastian Cabot, who had been chiefly educated in England in the reign of Edward VI. formed a commercial company, and obtained a royal charter. The capital subscribed was £ 6000, in shares of £ 25 each, and several of the nobility became subscribers. On the 9th of May, 1553, Sir Hugh Willoughby was appointed Commander in Chief of the ships, three in number, which squadron was dispatched on the 10th of May. The object was to sail to India not by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, but by the supposed North-west passage; but it was discovered afterwards that Sir Hugh Willoughby with his whole ship's company were frozen to death in the Northern Ocean, near the coast of Lapland. In this state was Sir Hugh found the following year, sitting in his cabin with his charts on a table before him*.

In 1591, two ships were fitted out for India, by the chief members of the Turkey Company. Three ships sailed in the month of May in that year. One ship returned without doubling the Cape of Good Hope. The Admiral's ship was lost in a storm: but the third ship, commanded by Captain Lancaster, reached India, where he obtained a cargo, consisting of pepper and other spices, at Sumatra and Ceylon: but proceeding to the West Indies for provisions, the ship was lost, being driven from her anchors in a storm while the captain, lieutenant, and seventeen men were on shore in search of provisions.

In the year 1596, Sir Robert Dudley and some other gentlemen fitted out three ships for China, and Queen Elizabeth sent a letter with them to the sovereign of the country: but this expedition was even more unfortunate than those which preceded it. After taking three Portuguese ships they

* An opinion generally prevailed at this time among scientific and nautical men, that a western passage to the Indian Ocean was practicable, and that when once discovered, it would prove more facile and easy than that discovered by the Portuguese by doubling the Cape of Good Hope. This opinion was entertained in every age, until all doubts on the subject have been set at rest by Mr. M'Kenzie's arduous and intrepid journey across the vast continent of North America until he reached the Pacific Ocean.

were so dreadfully reduced by sickness, that out of the three ships' companies only four men remained alive, who were cast on shore on a small island near Porto Rico, and who were murdered by the Spaniards for the sake of the treasure they had with them.

In the year 1599, the Merchants of London, justly incensed by the monopolizing spirit of the Dutch, who raised the price of pepper from 3s. to 8s. a pound and other articles in proportion, resolved to renew their endeavours to obtain a share of the lucrative trade of India. With this view, Mr. Staper and his associates engaged Mr. Mildenhall, a merchant of London, to go on a mission to the Great Mogul. He did not reach the Court of Agra until the year 1603, and after encountering many difficulties arising from the machinations of some Jesuits residing in Agra, he at length obtained an ample grant of commercial privileges for the English, in 1606.

In the mean time, and in the contemplation of the success of this mission, the Lord Mayor of London, most of the Aldermen, and other principal Merchants of the City to the number of 101, assembled on the 22d of September, 1599, at Founders-hall, and established an association for trading to India, for which they subscribed a capital of £ 30,133 6s. 8d. and this may be said to be the commencement of that great commercial intercourse, and the acquisition of those vast territories in British India, which have become the wonder and envy of all the nations of the civilized world.

On the 31st of December, 1600, Queen Elizabeth granted a charter to Thomas Smith, Alderman of London, and a great number of other individuals therein named, constituting them a Body Corporate and Politic, by the name of the Governor and Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies, with the usual privileges, and to trade exclusively for 15 years to all parts of Asia, Africa, and America, &c. and all the Queen's subjects are prohibited from trading within the company's privilege.

The company soon after raised a capital of £ 69,091 6s. 8d.

They fitted out four ships, the best in England, of the burden of 240, 260, 300 and 600 tons, with a victualler.

The ships' stores and provisions cost	-	-	-	-	£ 39,771	0	0
The merchandize forming the cargoes amounted to	-	-	-	-	6,860	0	0
And the bullion	-	-	-	-	21,742	0	0
					Total	£ 68,373	0 0

In each of the four ships three merchants embarked to transact the business in India. On the 22d of April, 1601, the ships ultimately took their departure from Torbay, and after a tedious voyage owing chiefly to the want of experience and courses, they arrived at Acheen, in the Island of Sumatra, on the 5th of June, 1602. The admiral of the fleet, Captain James Lancaster, was pompously received by the king of the country, to whom he delivered a letter from Queen Elizabeth accompanied by presents. A treaty of amity was concluded, and all privileges which Captain Lancaster asked were granted by the king. But the crop of pepper having failed, a sufficient quantity could not be obtained at that port. Having heard that pepper was to be had at Priaman, a port on the South-west coast of Sumatra, he sent the Susan, one of his ships there, and proceeded with the remainder of the fleet to Malacca. On his passage he fell in with a Portuguese ship of 900 tons, laden with calicoes and other manufactures of India, which he captured, and shifting the cargo on board his own vessels, he left the prize in possession of the prisoners, and returned to Acheen with the goods taken. He dispatched from thence the Ascension, one of his ships, direct for England, laden with pepper, cinnamon and cloves, and proceeded with the

other two ships to Priaman, where the Susan had been taking in pepper and cloves, and having there got enough of pepper, he dispatched this ship also for England, and proceeded himself with the remaining two ships to Java, and arrived at Bantam on the 5th of December, 1602, where he was kindly received. He delivered the Queen's letters and presents to the young king, only 10 years old. At Bantam, he found a brisk demand for his goods, and pepper extremely cheap, being less than 5*d.* per pound. Having loaded his ships, he proceeded on his voyage to England, but previous to his departure he settled the factories with eight men at Bantam to assist them in the sale of the remainder of the European goods, and to procure cargoes for the ships when they should return. He also sent a pinnace of 40 tons and 12 men with some merchants to establish a Factory at the Molucca Islands. He sailed for England on the 20th of February, and arrived in the Downs on the 11th of September, 1603.

On the 25th of March, 1604, the four ships that had made the first voyage sailed again under the command of Sir Henry Middleton, and returned in May, 1606, laden with pepper, nutmegs, mace and cloves, except the Susan, which was lost.

In 1606-7 a subscription was opened for a new stock, which amounted to £ 53,500. Three ships were fitted out namely, the Dragon, Hector, and Consent, which sailed in March and April, 1607, and after encountering many difficulties arising from the jealousies and intrigues of the Portuguese and Dutch with the native princes, the ships arrived in England with cargoes, without losing a man.

In March 1608, several members of the company subscribed a capital of £33,000 for a fourth voyage, which proved most unfortunate, the whole of the ships having been wrecked in India and on the voyage home.

In April, 1609, Captain Middleton was dispatched in the Consent to the Moluccas. He surmounted all difficulties to which he was exposed by the enmity of the Dutch, and returned in two years with a valuable cargo of nutmegs and mace, upon which the adventurers divided a profit of 211 per cent. So large a profit gave vigour to the spirit of adventure, and although the charter was not expired, the company were encouraged to apply for a renewal of it; and King James was so much disposed to favour the trade, that on the 31st of May, 1609, he granted to the company a *perpetual continuation* of their privileges as contained in the original charter.

Thus encouraged by so favourable a charter, the company built the largest ship that had ever been constructed in England for commercial purposes, being no less than *one thousand tons burthen*. King James and his court attended the launch, and named her *The Trade's Increase*.

The East India Company under their new charter raised a capital of £ 80,163 for the sixth voyage, and dispatched their fleet in spring 1610, consisting of three ships, *The Trade's Increase*, *The Pepper Corn*, and *The Darling*, with a bark to attend them as a victualler, all under the command of Sir Henry Middleton. *The Pepper Corn* arrived at London in October 1614, but *The Trade's Increase* was lost in Bantam Road in the year 1613, and Sir Henry Middleton soon after died of grief. Yet notwithstanding this loss, and the excessive delays and difficulties which attended the expedition, the adventurers received £ 121 13*s.* 4*d.* upon every £ 100 of their capital.

The seventh voyage was undertaken with a capital of £ 15,364, with a large ship called *The Globe*, under the direction of two merchants who had been in India in the Dutch service. The object of this voyage was to establish a trade for calicoes on the Coromandel Coast, a part to be sold in the Oriental Islands, where they were much in request, and a small proportion to be brought home for trial. Being defeated in the primary object by the jealousy of the Dutch, and the treacherous conduct of the Governor of Masulipatam, the ship proceeded ultimately to Bantam, where she took

in a cargo, and reached England in the summer of 1615. This voyage produced a profit of 218 per cent. to the proprietors.

The eighth voyage was undertaken in 1611, for which a capital was subscribed amounting to £55,947, and the ships *Clove*, *Hector* and *Thomas*, sailed in the month of April in this year, under the command of Captain Saris. He first proceeded to Mocha and from thence to Bantam, where two of his ships being loaded with pepper returned to England. Captain Saris proceeded in the *Clove* to Japan, intending to open a trade with that country. He arrived there in June, 1613, where he was kindly received by the Emperor, who granted him a charter conceding to the Company every privilege they could wish respecting trade, among which was an exemption from custom duties, and a liberty to establish a factory, &c.

The adventurers in this voyage shared a profit of 211 per cent. on their capitals.

The capital subscribed for the ninth voyage was only £19,164. And the ship *James*, Captain Martin, sailed for Bantam in February, 1611-12, and after making several country voyages returned to England in August, 1615, having made a profit of 160 per cent. for the proprietors.

The tenth voyage was on a larger scale. The capital subscribed was £46,092. Two ships, the *Dragon* and *Hoscunda*, were fitted out, and the command given to Captain Best, a brave and prudent officer; who was successful in removing the prejudices imbibed against the English by the Great Mogul, who granted a firman permitting an English minister to reside at his court, and that the trade of Surat should be free to English subjects, with other privileges and securities. After several naval actions with the Portuguese, in which Captain Best with a very inferior force repeatedly defeated them, he proceeded to Acheen, and after trading to several parts of Sumatra he completed his cargo of pepper and other goods, and arrived in the Thames on the 15th of June, 1614. His voyage yielded a profit of 148 per cent. to the subscribers.

The eleventh voyage was limited to a single ship, for which a part of the Company subscribed a stock of £10,669. The object of this voyage was to bring home the property of the adventurers on the third and fifth voyages. This voyage being made direct, both out and home, was completed in 20 months, and afforded a profit of 340 per cent.

The twelfth voyage employed only a capital of £7,142, and consisted of a single ship, namely the *Expedition* of 260 tons, commanded by Captain Newport, which sailed in January 1612-13. He loaded pepper at Sumatra and Bantam, and returned to England in July 1614. This was the last voyage which was conducted as a separate concern. It yielded a profit of £138 18s. 4d. for every £100 of their capital.

The erroneous policy of making every voyage a separate concern, in which every individual privileged by the charter might subscribe as much, or as little as he pleased, or nothing at all, became as obvious as it was absurd; and hence in the year 1613, it was resolved by the Company to have no further concern in separate voyages, and accordingly, a subscription was opened for conducting the trade upon a joint stock, for account of the whole Company as a joint body; and that they might have an opportunity of acting according to circumstances, it was agreed that the duration of their joint capital should be limited to four years. The stock thus subscribed amounted to £418,691 to be paid by equal instalments in each of the four years.

The first fleet equipped under the new system, consisted of four ships under the command of Captain Downton, which sailed in March 1613-14. When they arrived in India the Great Mogul and the princes of the Decan had united their forces to expel the Portuguese; and application was made to Captain Downton to assist them, which he declined, as his nation was not then at war with Spain. The Portuguese, in return for this forbearance, found means to make the Mogul

believe that the English had promised to join them in an attack upon Surat, but he was very soon undeceived; for when the English were beginning to trade with the natives, Captain Downton was attacked by the Portuguese Viceroy with six galleons, three ships and sixty frigates, which were all repeatedly beat off by the small English squadron of four ships. This splendid victory, achieved by so unequal a force, astonished the Mogul, and was of great service to the interest of the Company in subsequent transactions with that monarch. Captain Downton, after dispatching one of his ships home with a cargo, proceeded with the others to Bantam, where he procured mace, silk, and porcelain, which he sent in one of his ships with six merchants to establish a factory at Masulipatam.

From Surat the fleet sailed South to Calicut, where Captain Keeling, the commander in chief in March 1615-16, entered into a treaty with the sovereign of the country, called the Zamorin, for the delivery of the Fort of Cranganore to the Company as soon as he should take it from the Portuguese, and also the fort and town of Cochin when he should recover it, and with liberty of trade without paying customs. The Company at this time possessed the following factories in India:—

Bantam	-	-	-	}	in Java.	Surat	-	-	-	}	in the Mogul's dominions.
Jacatra, afterwards Batavia	-	-	-			Amadavad	-	-	-		
Japara	-	-	-	}	in Sumatra.	Agra	-	-	-	}	on the Malabar Coast.
Acheen	-	-	-			Azmere, or Agimere	-	-	-		
Jambee	-	-	-	}	in the Banda Islands.	Brampore, or Burampore	-	-	-	}	on the Coromandel Coast.
Tecoa	-	-	-			Calicut	-	-	-		
Banda	-	-	-	}	in Borneo.	Masulipatam	-	-	-	}	the capital of the kingdom of Siam.
Benjarmassing	-	-	-			Petapoli	-	-	-		
Socodania	-	-	-	}	in Japan.	Siam	-	-	-	}	in Malacca.
Firando	-	-	-			Patan	-	-	-		
						Macassar	-	-	-		in the Island of Celebes.

In 1617, such had been the prosperous state of the joint stock company, that their stock annually sold at 203 per cent.: but a great deal of their property remained in India, which, on account of the monopolizing spirit and enmity of the Dutch, compelled them to make over their stock at a low valuation to the proprietors of the second joint stock, in the year 1621, and then, on making up their accounts, they found that their whole profits in eight years amounted only to 87½ per cent.

In the year 1616, as soon as it was known that the Company proposed to raise a new capital, all ranks crowded into the subscription, which, at the time of closing it, amounted to £1,629,040, being the largest capital that had ever been subscribed for a joint stock trade in any part of the world. Among the subscribers were fifteen dukes and earls, 13 countesses and other titled ladies, 82 knights, including judges and privy counsellors, 18 widows and maiden ladies, 26 clergymen and physicians, 313 merchants, 214 tradesmen, 25 merchant strangers, and 248 without any designation: *in the whole* 954.

In the month of February 1622-23, in violation of an existing treaty recently made, the Dutch seized all the English at Amboyna and the adjacent Islands, and murdered most of them with the most excruciating tortures that the most infernal malice could devise. They soon after found means to drive the agents and servants of the English Company out of all the other spice islands, and to plunder all their property found in the factories. Many sanguinary battles were fought at this time

between the English and Dutch, in the East Indies, which are fully recorded in the history of this period.

Mr. Munn, the deputy governor of the English Company, in a discourse on the trade of England, published in 1621, states the value of the Company's joint property at £400,000. That their trade gave employment to 10,000 tons of shipping, 2,500 seamen, 500 ship carpenters, and 120 factors in India.

It now appears from accounts laid before Parliament, that in 21 years preceding the 29th of November 1621, the Company had sent 86 ships to India, of which 36 had returned home with cargoes, five were worn out, nine were lost, 11 surprized and seized by the Dutch, and 25 in the course of their voyages to and from India.

About this time the India trade became unpopular, and complaints were made that it drained the country of bullion, and exhausted the timber by the building of large ships: but these objections were ably and satisfactorily refuted. An account of the trade of India was at the same time laid before Parliament, from the 25th of March, 1620, to the 25th of March 1624, by which it appears, that in—

Ships.			Value of Imports.	
1620. The bullion exported in 10 was	£62,490		All the ships detained in India to de-	
and Merchandize	28,508		fend the company's property, except one	£ 108,887
		90,998	which brought indigo, calicoes, drugs, &c.	
1621. Bullion	£ 12,900		The money being wasted in a quarrel	
Merchandize	6,523		with the Dutch, only one ship returned	94,464
		19,423	with pepper, cloves and China raw silk,	
			value	
1622. Bullion	£61,600		The cargoes of five ships, consisting of	
Merchandize	6,430		pepper, cloves, mace, nutmegs, indigo,	389,500
		68,030	calicoes, &c.	
1623. Bullion	£68,720		Pepper, cloves, mace, nutmegs,	
Merchandize	17,345		indigo, calicoes, &c. brought	
		86,065	home in five ships	£ 485,593
			Persian raw silk	97,000
				582,593
			Received from the Dutch for property	
			plundered by them in India,	80,000
				£ 1,255,444

Returns expected to arrive in the year 1624 to the amount of £ 500,000.

In India, the Dutch still continuing to take advantage of their superior power to oppress and insult the servants of the English company, they suffered damage from the hostility of these pretended allies to the amount of about *two millions*; which so embarrassed the affairs at this time, by being unable to pay £ 200,000 due in England, that the Company had serious thoughts of winding up their affairs, and bringing home their property; in the mean time, permission was given to such members of the Company as chose to adventure to ship cloth and tin to Persia on their own account.—In 1643, the Company obtained from the sovereign of the country a grant of the town of Madraspatnam, (Madras) to which they removed their factory from Armegon on the coast of the Carnatic, and built Fort St. George for the greater security of the settlement. The Dutch having

abandoned the settlement of St. Helena, the Company took possession of it in the year 1651, as a place of refreshment for the homeward bound East India ships. It was taken by the Dutch in 1672, but retaken in May 1673, with three Dutch East India ships along with it, and has ever since been in the possession of the Company.

The threatening aspect of public affairs at this time, and the unpromising appearance of the Company's trade, reduced their stock in May 1628 so low as 80 per cent.

The troubles which soon after broke out in the reign of Charles the First, and the subsequent government under Cromwell, for a time disorganized the affairs of the Company. New adventurers were permitted to trade to India, and much confusion ensued. And although Cromwell granted a new charter in October 1657, declaring a capital of £ 739,782 10s. of which only £ 369,891 5s. was subscribed, it did not assume the form of stability until the restoration; when on the 3d of April 1661, King Charles the Second granted the Company a new charter retaining the original designation of merchants trading to the East Indies, and most of the articles inserted in the charter of Queen Elizabeth. The quantity of bullion to be exported was enlarged to £ 50,000, and every proprietor of £ 500 in the stock was entitled to a vote.

In 1662, Charles the Second having acquired from Portugal the Island of Bombay, in addition to a portion of £ 500,000 in money, and the town of Tangier in Africa, on his marriage with his Queen, he sent the Earl of Marlborough with a proper force to explore and take possession of his new territory; but having experienced many obstructions and difficulties from the Viceroy of Goa, and that the acquisition was an unprofitable one, on the 27th of March 1699 the king made over his part of the island to the East India Company, on repaying him his expences, and paying a fee farm rent of ten pounds at the custom-house on the 30th of September, in each year, in all time coming

In 1664, the seven years to which the Company had limited their charter having expired, a statement of their affairs, and an account of the transaction for the preceding seven years was made out, on the balance of which it appeared that they possessed,

In India:—In dead and quick stock	- - - - -	£ 435,713
In England:—In cash and bullion	- - - - -	£ 37,663
In drugs	- - - - -	3,885
In pepper, &c.	- - - - -	822
In piece goods	- - - - -	11,375
In salt petre, &c.	- - - - -	12,393
In advances for exports	- - - - -	9,227
In household furniture	- - - - -	112
In lease of house in Leadenhall-street	- - - - -	1,000
		76,477
In debts owing for goods sold	- - - - -	127,935
In other debts	- - - - -	21,316
		225,728
		661,441
The debts of the Company amounted to	- - - - -	165,807
Balance constituting their net stock	- - - - -	£ 495,634

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This statement having shewn that the net stock exceeded the original capital of £ 369,891 by 30 per cent, it was agreed that the books should be opened for a new subscription at £ 130 for every £ 100 share ; but no person came forward, and the stock remained as before.

In 1669, the Company received from Bantam two cannisters, containing 143½ pounds of tea, and this is believed to have been the first importation of this article from any part of the Indies. It was partly given away in presents, and partly expended at the India House for the refreshment of the committees.

On the 31st of January 1671-2, the Nabob of the Carnatic made over to the Company his remaining moiety of the customs of Madras for a fixed annual rent of 1200 pagodas ; and soon after, the neighbouring king of Golconda released them intirely from paying any customs in his dominions.

In 1672, King Charles the Second having declared war against the Dutch, the Company were obliged in the following year to send out 6000 men to defend their Island of Bombay.

In 1676, in consequence of the Company's trade having been very successful for several years, it was agreed to add as much of their accumulated profit to the capital stock as would double it ; and accordingly, it was immediately raised from £ 369,891 5s. to £ 739,782 10s. upon which the market price of stock, which had been under par, immediately rose to 245 per cent.

In 1677, in consequence of a clamour raised against the East India monopoly, Sir Josiah Child was the reputed author of a pamphlet, written in vindication of the Company, and in answer to a pamphlet which had been published in favour of a free trade, and which had attracted much notice. This answer gave the following view of the Company's affairs at this time. He stated that the Company employ from 30 to 35 ships of from 300 to 600 tons, and carrying from 40 to 70 guns, which he considered as a great addition to the maritime power of the country. He further stated their imports in the season 1674-5 to be—

Calico, pepper, saltpetre, indigo, raw silks, wrought silks, drugs, &c. of the value	£ 860,000
of	60,000
From which deduct for factors, forts, and other expences in India	£ 800,000
The goods imported in private trade by the officers and seamen consisting of	250,000
diamonds, pearls, musk, ambergris, &c. amounted at least to	£ 1,050,000
Total imports	
The Company's exports consisted of bullion	£ 320,000
Woollen goods and other merchandize	110,000
	£ 430,000
Private Trade.—Bullion about	£ 80,000
Merchandize about	40,000
	120,000
	550,000
And hence he concludes, that there was an addition made to the national wealth of	500,000
	£ 1,050,000

APPENDIX.

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He adds, that the exports of the Company's goods amounted to about £ 630,000
 And the private trade is supposed to amount at least to - - - 200,000
 Making an addition to the exports of - - - £ 830,000

The returns for which were nearly equal to twice the prime cost of the whole year's trade, which moreover gave employment to 5,000 tons of shipping, and a suitable proportion of seamen, and produced a profit, or two profits, to the exporting merchants, thereby further augmenting the wealth and maritime strength of the nation.

The amount of Indian commodities used at this time for home consumption is thus estimated.

Pepper	-	-	180,000 pounds at 8d.	-	-	-	£ 6,000
Saltpetre	-	-	-	-	-	-	30,000
Raw and wrought silks	-	-	-	-	-	-	30,000
Calicoes	-	-	-	-	-	-	160,000
Indigo and drugs	-	-	-	-	-	-	15,000
Total							£ 241,000

On the 5th of October 1677, the King granted the Company a new charter, containing a confirmation of their privileges, with authority to coin money (not resembling British money) at Bombay and other places in India, with power also to recover money for breach of contract from their servants and ship owners; from which it should seem, that the Company then commenced the practice of chartering ships, which has since prevailed.

In the year 1680, it appears the first ship was sent by the East India Company to trade with China, the trade of which had been heretofore entirely monopolized by the Portuguese, and the Dutch.

About this time the East India Company were attacked by the calico printers, silk weavers, and also the Turkey Company, who presented memorials to the King in Council against the importation of fabrics similar to those made in England; while the Turkey Company alledged, that the importation of raw silk interfered with their exclusive right.

At this time the Company consisted of 600 members, who were entitled to votes proportioned to their shares, and hence it happened that some had to the amount of 60 votes. Every member had moreover liberty to carry on trade on his own private account to the extent of one-fifth of his stock in the Company's capital. His Majesty's customs had been more than doubled by the East India trade.

The stock of the Company, clear of all debts, now amounted to £1,700,000; and they owed £550,000, for which they paid interest. The expence of the Company's forts in India was at this time estimated at £100,000 a year.

In the year 1682, the Company were deprived of their settlement at Bantam, one of the oldest and best establishments, in consequence of a quarrel between the king and his son. The English supported the father, and the Dutch espoused the cause of the son, who was ultimately successful; and the new king at their instigation, not only expelled the English, but also the French, Portuguese and Danes, who had taken no part in the contest.

The English Company thus deprived of Bantam, obtained a settlement at Bencoolen, and in order to guard against a similar disaster, they fortified the place at an expence of £250,000, which enabled them to retain the trade in pepper, which must otherwise have been entirely monopolized by the Dutch.

On the 9th of August 1683, King Charles granted the Company a new charter, confirming all their former privileges, with additional powers to seize all vessels invading their rights with respect to trade, with power also to exercise martial law in their garrisons in India, and to establish courts for the trial of crimes committed on the seas and other matters within their territories.

On an average of nine years, from 1676 to 1685, the annual profits of the Company amounted to £100,000. Their stock under this prosperity rose 500 per cent.

In 1686, King James renewed the charter of the Company with additional privileges.

In 1698, the English factory obtained permission to purchase from the Indian proprietors the villages of Soota-nutty, Calcutta, and Govindpore, extending in all about three miles along the east bank of the Ganges, and about one mile back from it, for which they agreed to pay annually to the Nabob 1195 rupees, being the rent he received from the former proprietors. *Such was the commencement of the Company's territorial possessions in Bengal.* The ground on which these villages stood is now covered by buildings of the great and flourishing city of Calcutta.

From a view of the Company's affairs, published in 1689, it appears that they had in India, and on their homeward passage, 11 ships and four permission ships, the cargoes of which were worth £360,000

They had going out to the Coast and Bay, seven large ships and six	}	£ 570,000
permission ones, with cargoes valued at about - - - - -		
They had also seven ships going to China and the Southern Islands	}	100,000
with cargoes worth about - - - - -		
		670,000
And goods in their warehouses valued at - - - - -		700,000
		Total value of quick stock £1,730,000

Besides the value of their ships and stores, about 30 small armed vessels employed in India, and all their stores, houses, arms, ammunition, &c. in India. It was further stated, that the Company's settlement at Bombay had increased from 4,000 to 50,000 families, in consequence of draining the marshes and cutting down the woods, which tended greatly to the health of the inhabitants.

About this time M. D'Avenant, in his discourse on Revenue and Trade, page 377, estimated the benefit arising annually to all persons concerned in the East India Trade at £1,980,000.

On the 7th of October 1693 the Company obtained a renewal of their charter from King William, confirming former privileges, and establishing many new regulations. Which was further confirmed by a supplementary charter, granted on the 28th of September 1694, notwithstanding great clamour and opposition which was excited against the exclusive monopoly, by which at this time the minds of all ranks connected with commerce and manufactures appear to have been greatly agitated. In 1697, the silk weavers of Spitalfields, under an impression that the importation of calicoes and silk stuffs injured the sale of their manufactures, became outrageous, assaulted the East India House, and had nearly got possession of the Company's treasure, when they were dispersed by the civil power.

The treaty concluded at Ryswick in November 1697 put an end to the sanguinary war of the revolution. In the eight years, during which it convulsed Europe, no less than 4,200 British merchant vessels were captured by French ships of war and privateers, and among which several of the East India Company's valuable homeward bound ships. These heavy losses, coupled with the interference of private traders to India, notwithstanding the charter, disabled the Company from dividing

any profits for several years. This circumstance, not only rendered the East India trade very unpopular, but placed their charter on a precarious footing.

About the commencement of the year 1698, the executive government signified to the Company, that they would expect a large sum for the public service, in consideration of a parliamentary confirmation of their privileges. The general court, aware that their rivals, the separate traders, would be applied to at the same time, and feeling the difficulty of their situation, proposed to advance £700,000 at an interest of 4 per cent, provided their charter should be fully confirmed by Parliament. Meanwhile, the separate traders, many of whom were very opulent and highly respectable, offered to advance £2,000,000 at 8 per cent, provided they should be invested by Parliament with all the privileges of the India trade, which had been conferred by the king's charter on the present Company. Parliament accepted the largest sum, although at double interest; and a bill for incorporating the subscribers was ordered, to be prepared. The Company opposed the bill with all the arguments which able counsel could bring forward, particularly, that they had suffered the loss of £1,500,000 by war and shipwreck.—That they had paid to the revenue since 1693 the sum of £295,000 in customs, besides £85,000 in other taxes.—That they had supplied the king with 6000 barrels of gunpowder on a pressing occasion, and subscribed £80,000 for circulating exchequer bills.—They also endeavoured to interest the feelings of the house by representing that many families, whose whole property was invested in East India stock, would be ruined by their dissolution. The counsel on the other side exerted themselves to repel these arguments; but rested the merits of their cause chiefly on the insufficiency of the king's charter, without the confirmation of parliament.

The Company, finding no expectation of success, resolved not to be outdone by their opponents, and proposed a loan of £2,000,000 to government; but this offer availed them nothing. The executive government were favourable to the opposing interest, and they prevailed. On the 5th of July 1698 the royal assent was given to an act, incorporating the new subscribers with power and privileges similar to the chartered Company; and so great was the expectation of advantages to be derived by an East India trade, sanctioned by parliamentary authority, that the subscription of two millions was filled up in three days after the books were opened. The greatest part, however, was subscribed by foreigners, and the king himself was an adventurer to the extent of £10,000. The option in the charter to individuals holding stock, to trade on his own separate account, was supposed to operate powerfully, particularly with the Dutch subscribers in facilitating the subscription.

The principal promoters of the design, seeing the inconvenience which would arise from the option to trade privately, procured a charter from the king, on the 5th of September, in which it was stipulated among other regulations, "that every member shall take an oath not to trade on his private account."

These different conflicts, arising from contending interests, produced four classes of merchants, all of whom under certain circumstances had a right to trade to India.

1st. The original Company, who possessed all the establishments, and had a right to trade for three years.

2nd. The new Company, who, although they had neither forts nor factories, were authorized to trade immediately.

3dly. A few subscribers of the general society, who chose to trade, each on his own account.

4thly. The separate traders, who were so far legalized, that all the ships they sent out before the 1st of July 1698 had a right to prosecute one voyage; which might be lengthened out to any period by country voyages.

As no less than 60 ships are said to have been employed by all these contending interests, the irregular state of the trade, joined to the excessive exportation of bullion, and also of merchandize, and the inevitable consequence of the violent collision of jarring interests in India, produced the most ruinous results both at home and abroad; and called for the interference of parliament, in the spring of the year 1700, when it was enacted, that in consequence of the general distress of the manufacturers, that silk goods and other articles of the produce of India, therein mentioned, should be prohibited, except for exportation. The glut of India goods joined to other distresses, produced by this rivalry, reduced the value of the stock of the original Company to 37 per cent. The two companies appear to have exerted themselves for mutual destruction. At length, however, both parties began to see their own interest, and after obviating many difficulties, an union was happily effected on the 22d of July 1702 by a tripartite indenture, wherein Queen Anne, the Old Company, and the New Company were partners.

By this most important instrument it was determined, that the old Company, in addition to their original subscription of £ 315,000 to the new Company, should purchase stock from the new Company at par to the extent of £673,500, making in all	-	-	-	-	£ 988,500
Being equal to the new Company's remaining part	-	-	-	-	988,500
To which adding the stock of the separate traders	-	-	-	-	23,000
Make up the capital of	-	-	-	-	£ 2,000,000
The forts, factories, buildings, and other fixed property, called the dead stock, } of the old Company in India, were valued at	-	-	-	-	£ 330,000
And those of the new Company, at	-	-	-	-	70,000
					£ 400,000
Therefore the new Company shall pay to the old Company	-	-	-	-	£ 130,000
Which with the value of their own forts, &c.	-	-	-	-	70,000
Makes the sum of					£ 200,000

During the ensuing seven years both Companies shall remain distinct, for the purpose of winding up their affairs, and dividing the property brought home among the respective stockholders in each concern: but all ships and merchandize henceforth sent to India shall be on the joint account, under the management of 12 directors, deputed by each Company.

The United Company bind themselves to her Majesty, to have at least one-tenth of their exports in English manufactures, and to deliver annually at the ordnance office 494½ tons of salt petre, at £ 45 per ton in time of peace, and £53 in time of war, &c.

After the expiration of seven years, the Company are to be called,

The United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies.

The old Company executed on the same day a deed of conveyance to the new Company,

1. Of their warehouses and other tenements in Great St. Helen's, London.
2. Of the ports and islands of Bombay, granted to them by Charles II.
3. Of the Island of St. Helena.
4. The forts of Magazom, Mahim, Syon, Syere and Worle.
5. The factories of Surat, Swally, Broach, Amadavad, Agra, and Lucknow.

6. The forts of Carwar, Tellichery, Anjengo and Calicut.
7. The factories in Persia at Gombroon, Shyras, and Ispahant, with the yearly rent of £ 3,333 6s. 8d. granted to them by the Sophi of Persia.

Also on the Coast of Coromandel,

8. The forts of Chingu and Orissa.
9. The factories of Cuddalore, Portnovi, Pettipolee, Metchelepatnam, &c.
10. The fort and factory of Vizagapatnam.
11. Fort St. George, Madras, with the city and dependencies.
12. Fort St. David and its territories of three miles, containing several towns and villages.

In the Island of Sumatra,

13. York fort and factory, with the dependent factories of Sillebar, &c.
14. Indrapore and Tryamong.

In Cochin China,

15. The factory of Tonquin.

In Bengal,

16. Fort William in Calcutta.
17. Sutta-Nutty, with its territory.
18. Ballasore.
19. Cossimbazar.
20. Dacca, Hooghly, Maulda, Rajamaul, and Patna.

In the year 1701 the following view was given of the export trade of the Company, from the 29th of September 1698 to the 29th of September 1701, (presumed to be the new Company) who, within this period, sent one ship for Coromandel, one for Coromandel and Bengal, one for Bengal, three for Surat, one for China, and one for Borneo.

The cargoes of these eight ships consisted of British produce and manu- factures, which with customs and charges cost	}	£ 40,674 11 0
Foreign Bullion (Dollars at 5s.) and some foreign goods	- -	286,720 8 8
Total cost of eight cargoes	- -	£ 327,394 19 8
Money shipt in His Majesty's ship Harwich, and goods for the service of an ambassador and his retinue	}	5,559 14 11
		£ 332,954 14 7

In the year ending the 29th of September 1700 the Company sent out two ships to Limpo in China, one to Limpo and Borneo, one to Coromandel, one to Coromandel and Bengal, two to Borneo, two to Surat and one to Bengal.

The British goods in these 10 ships with customs cost -

The foreign bullion and merchandise, as before - £ 280,042 15 8

£ 340,071 2 8

In the year ending the 29th of September 1701 the Company sent to Moco, (presumed Arabia) one ship. To Canton in China three. To Limpo one. To Amoy (or Emouy) one. To Coromandel three. To Surat two. To Bengal two. And to Borneo one. Total 14 ships.

The British goods with customs cost	-	-	-	-	£ 75,527	19	9
Foreign Bullion and Merchandize as before	-	-	-	-	438,610	4	0
						514,138	3 9
Total Exportation in three years	-	-	-	-	£ 1,187,164	0	0

In the year 1707, the Parliament enacted that the Company should give bond to the amount of £ 2500 for every hundred tons the ships in their service are let for: and it appears by this act and the Company's ninth bye law, that they had now given up building and owning ships, and had established a system of carrying on their trade by chartered ships, which has continued for more than a century. These bonds were granted to secure the landing the whole of their homeward cargoes (with the exception of supplies necessary for St. Helena) in some port of Great Britain.

In the same session an act passed, whereby the Company became bound to pay the Exchequer £ 1,200,000 for which they were to receive no interest, or in other words, to accept 5 instead of 8 per cent. on their capital, thereby augmented to £ 3,200,000; and their privilege of exclusive trade to India is extended to the 25th of March 1726, with three years notice after that day, when upon repayment of the capital sum of £ 3,200,000 it shall cease.

In order to complete and perfect the union between the Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies and the English Company, both parties agreed to refer all matters of difference between them to the Earl of Godolphin, whose award shall be given before the 29th of September 1708.

By this important award, founded upon the act of the sixth of Anne, a termination was put in a legal manner to all the jarring interests which had too long distracted the English trade with India; and the Company were placed nearly on the same footing upon which they have remained ever since. By the decision of Lord Godolphin the old Company were required to transfer the debts owing to them in Great Britain to the Queen, that she might re-grant them to the new or united Company, who should thereby become liable to pay the debts owing by the old Company, with other arrangements calculated to equalize the interests of all the parties concerned upon just and equitable principles.

The Company having been obliged to lend their whole capital, £ 3,200,000, to Government, they had no active capital whatever wherewith they could carry on their trade, and the only benefit they could derive was the credit it gave them, whereby they could with greater facility borrow money on bonds.

By the Act of the ninth of Queen Anne, in order to prevent an improper interference in the affairs of the East India Company and the Bank, it was enacted that no person should be a director of both at the same time.

In 1709, the united Company made their first quarterly dividend at the rate of five per cent. for the year on their capital stock.

In 1712, by the act of the 10th of Anne the Company's charter was extended to the 25th of March 1733, in the usual terms, and then their annual payment of £ 160,000 should cease and determine.

In the year 1707 the Company's factory at Calcutta, which had hitherto been subordinate to Madras, was declared an independent presidency. The town increased rapidly in population. It having become the chief establishment in Bengal, the fortifications were improved and the garrison augmented.

The Nabob of Bengal, (Jaffier Khan) viewing with jealousy the tranquillity and prosperity of Calcutta, removed his residence from Dacca to Muxadabad, that he might be near at hand to controul and harass the Company's servants. Disregarding the Emperor or Great Mogul's various grants

of privileges, he had recourse to every species of extortion, not only upon the European factories indiscriminately, but also on his own subjects.

In 1715, ambassadors were sent to the Court of Delhi, but no redress was given until 1717, and this was chiefly obtained by the success of Mr. Hamilton, surgeon to the embassy, who in a few weeks cured the Emperor of a venereal complaint which had baffled all the skill of his physicians. In gratitude for this service, and the apprehensions of the visit of a strong British fleet, redress was at length obtained, and mandates addressed to the Nabobs of Bengal and Guzerat, and Subahdar of the Deccan, sealed with the Emperor's seal,—by which very extensive privileges were granted.—But the Nabob of Bengal frustrated the Emperor's grant, by threatening the proprietors of the towns on the banks of the river Hooghly with his vengeance, if they sold them to the Company, notwithstanding the authority given by the Emperor to purchase them.

In 1720, when the mania of the South Sea scheme in England and the Mississippi bubble in France had diffused a temporary phrenzy among all classes of the community, the United English East India Company appear to have escaped the contagion; but when the South Sea bubble burst, the Company's stock was raised to the price of 440 per cent. although the dividend was only 10 per cent. with no prospect of any advance, in consequence of the then illicit practices of the adventurers in the Ostend East India trade which tended in a material degree to reduce the profits. And the embarrassments which these rivalships and the continued invasion of their privileges by British subjects brought upon their commerce, coupled with some other distressing circumstances, compelled them at Midsummer 1722 to reduce the annual rate of their dividend from ten to eight per cent.

On the 24th of September, 1726, the King granted a charter, authorising the establishment of a court, consisting of a Mayor and nine Aldermen, in each of the Company's principal Settlements of Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta, for trying all causes, civil or criminal, except high treason. The powers of this charter were enlarged and more accurately defined in a subsequent charter in 1753.

In February 1729-30, six years before the expiration of the Company's charter, an association of merchants made a proposal to Parliament to advance £3,200,000, for the purpose of paying off the debts owing to the present Company by the public; for which they would accept four per cent until the 25th of March 1733, and thereafter only two per cent, whereby the nation would have an annual saving of £92,000. In consideration of which they petitioned to be incorporated for 31 years, they requested a power to levy a duty of one per cent. on exports, and five per cent. on imports, in order to defray the expence of forts and settlements in India; *and upon these terms they proposed that all British Subjects should be freely admitted to trade to India* under their license, and that the trade should be confined to the port of London. The Company, on the other hand, represented that their annual sales, which amounted to £3,000,000, yielded a revenue of £300,000 clear of all deductions; that it was not probable that a trade that every man could take up and lay down at his pleasure would produce so much revenue, or bear the expence of forts and factories; and that an uncontrolled separate trade would infallibly renew the distress which nearly effected the ruin of the trade, when the two rival companies and private individuals were all trading in competition. The only effect which this produced was a payment from the Company of £200,000 into the Exchequer on the 24th of December, 1730, as a gift, and also to give up one per cent. of the interest on their capital, thereby reducing their dividends from £160,000 to £128,000.

In consequence of these boons to the public, the Company's charter was extended to the 25th of March 1766; the sacrifices, however, which were thus made of £200,000 in ready money, and a reduction of the interest on their capital from five to four per cent, equal to £640,000 more, obliged the Company

at Christmas 1732 to reduce their dividend to seven per cent, at which rate it remained until Midsummer 1743, when it was again advanced to eight per cent. From this period until the year 1744 nothing occurred out of the regular routine of the Company's business.

Government being then much in want of money to carry on the war against France and Spain, the company lent one million at an interest of three per cent. in consideration of their charter being extended to the 25th of March, 1780, with the same privileges as in the former charter. The debt therefore due to the Company in 1744 amounted to £ 4,200,000; and to enable them to make the payment now stipulated, they were authorized by the act of 17 Geo. 2. to borrow any sum not exceeding one million.

In the year 1750, the Company were obliged to submit to a further reduction of the dividends of their debt due by Government on their original property of £ 2,000,000; which at first bore an interest of eight per cent. was now reduced to three per cent. making first and last a diminution of income to the extent of £ 100,000 a year, and a consequent saving to government to that amount. The Company, availing themselves of the power of borrowing one million, obtained £ 2,990,440 5s. by the sale of annuities payable at the India House, amounting to £ 89,773 4s. thereby exhibiting a strong proof of confidence and credit on the part of the public.

From about this period a succession of extraordinary events in India, in some measure, compelled the Company to act as a warlike, as well as a commercial community; and this has produced a succession of events as extraordinary as unlooked for and unexpected.

For two centuries after the Europeans had commercial intercourse with India, the Great Mogul was universally considered as the most powerful and most opulent sovereign in the world; although of a foreign lineage, and a different religion, he reigned over a gentle race of people, who quietly submitted to his dominion to the computed extent of one hundred millions of the Hindoo race, and about ten millions of Mahomedans. He delegated the administration of his immense government and numerous provinces to officers called Subahdars and Nabobs, who were invested with such portions of sovereign power, and the command of such armies, as encouraged them, when the sceptre passed into the hands of weak and voluptuous princes, to make great encroachments on the power, while they professedly respected the prerogative of the Emperor. During relaxed reigns, however, these great officers found means to render themselves nearly independent of the imperial throne, and to make the revenue of the sovereign just what they thought proper to allow him. And in process of time, they found means to commute a fluctuating and uncertain income for a fixed income, whereby the whole revenue of the provinces became legally vested in themselves.

This was the state of the Mogul Empire when it was invaded by Thamas Kouli Khan, the usurper of the throne of Persia, who, after pillaging the capital, desolating many of the provinces, and compelling the unfortunate Mogul to cede to him the provinces situated on the west side of the river Indus, returned to Persia, in 1739, with plunder, it is said, to the amount of £ 70,000,000 sterling, (some accounts make it amount to £ 125,000,000, and others to the enormous sum of £ 231,000,000). The provincial governors, seeing their sovereign thus humbled, withheld the stipulated tribute which they knew he was unable to enforce, and assumed independent power in their own territories. Their independence was soon followed by quarrels among themselves; and the miserable people were oppressed beyond measure by taxes to support contending armies.

In the year 1746, the French took Madras, which for a century had been the principal English settlement in India; but it was restored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748.

During the war which had now terminated, the French and English companies had become military powers in India, and their forces were so augmented as to place them on a level in point

of political importance with the greatest among whom the country was now divided; and hence these princes, sensible of the superiority of European tactics, courted their alliance in the wars with hostile neighbours.

In 1749, Saujohee, the deposed king of Tanjore, applied to the English presidency at St. David's, while Madras was in the hands of the French, for their assistance to reinstate him in his dominions, from which he had been ejected by his half-brother. The members of the Presidency, without considering, whether, as servants of a commercial company, they had authority to interfere in disputes between the native princes, thought proper to engage in the cause; and although they did not succeed further than obtaining a pension for the deposed king, the expences of the war were paid by Pratoop-Sing, the established sovereign, who besides ceded Devicotah, with a district of the annual value of 9,000 pagodas to the Company.

About this time, Dupleix, the French governor of Pondicherry, was induced to interfere in a dispute between two native princes, who claimed the sovereignty of Arcot. The English were also applied to by the opposite party, but declined interfering. Dupleix succeeded in establishing one of the competitors, Murzaffa-Jing, who made him deputy governor of a country in extent not much inferior to France, yielding a vast revenue, and he granted besides to the French East India Company considerable territories adjacent to their settlements, and yielding large revenues.

The English presidency at Madras, agreeable to the cautious policy they had adopted, took little concern in these events until 1751, when provoked by the arrogant display of flags, set up by Dupleix in his own territory and even on the English Company's lands, which considering as an act of hostility against themselves, they determined to support Mohamed-Ally in his claim to the dominion of Arcot; and with this view sent him a military force, under the command of Captain Ginger and Captain Clive, the latter a self taught warrior, originally in the company's civil service. On the 1st of September, 1751, Captain Clive took the fort of Arcot, in which he found effects to the value of £50,000 lodged for security, belonging to the merchants of the country, which he restored without ransom, and thereby acquired the good will of the natives to himself and the nation. A warfare ensued, in which Captain Clive displayed those extraordinary military talents, which led to others, which raised him to the highest military rank, as well as the greatest honours which his country could bestow.

The British East India Company, greatly alarmed at a state of things so contrary to the peaceful system of commercial intercourse, which they anxiously wished to follow, solicited the interference of Government with France, for the purpose of setting at rest, if possible, all interference on the part of either nation, in the disputes of the native princes, and that both should unite to compel their Indian allies to maintain peace. The result was, that a treaty was concluded in 1756, settling all matters between the English and French East India Companies.

In 1756, a British squadron under Admiral Watson, in conjunction with two ships of war belonging to the Company, under that intrepid officer, Commodore James, and 800 Europeans, and 1000 Seapoys, commanded by Clive, now Lieut. Col. Clive, were employed in subduing a most formidable nation of pirates, who inhabited a tract of coast between Bombay and Goa, extending 120 miles, and were governed by chiefs, who successively took the title of Angria. They possessed many fortified posts, reckoned impregnable by warriors of India, and their fleet was sufficiently strong to overpower vessels however well armed; insomuch that they had taken and destroyed many Dutch and French ships of war, and had at different periods, particularly in 1722 and 1724, baffled the efforts of a squadron of British ships of the line, and a Portuguese army, as well as a Dutch squadron of seven ships of the line to take their forts. This

therefore was an expedition in favour of all European nations. It had cost the English Company £ 50,000 a year to keep up a squadron to protect their trade, and yet their ships were sometimes taken. The presidency of Bombay, encouraged by the success of Commodore James, who had for the first time defeated their fleet the preceding year, resolved to follow it up by a decisive blow at Gheria, the capital station of the Angria, which stands on a peninsular rock similar to Gibraltar, in February 1756; and Admiral Watson with the fleet consisting of seven of His Majesty's ships, and five bomb ketches, accompanied by Commodore James and the Company's two ships of war, with the land forces under Lieut. Col. Clive, stood into the river which serves as a harbour to the fort, burnt the whole pirate fleet, and compelled the garrison to surrender; where they found 200 pieces of cannon, with a large quantity of military stores and effects to the amount of £ 50,000, which was shared among the captors. The pirates in the other forts, panic struck by the fate of Gheria, surrendered to the Mahratta army, who had assembled to co-operate with the fleet; and thus terminated the career of a most pernicious community of robbers, who had continued for above 70 years the tremendous, and till now, invincible scourge of the navigators of all nations, who ventured to approach the Malabar Coast.

In July 1756, the presidency of Madras, learning that the Bengal establishment at Calcutta was almost destroyed by Surajah-Dowlah, the Subahdar of the country, measures were taken to send all the disposable force to oppose him. On the 18th of June he besieged Calcutta, and in two days got possession of it, there having been scarcely any means of defence. Enraged at finding only 50,000 rupees in the Company's treasury, and pretending that a much greater treasure was buried under ground, as a punishment for concealment, he crammed 146 of the chief European inhabitants into an apartment not 20 feet square, which, being used as a prison for the garrison, was therefore called the black hole, when, in consequence of the excessive heat of the night and suffocation, the whole perished except 23. The monster, who committed this atrocious act of cruelty, is said to have exulted in it, went to sleep, and no one durst presume to awake him to state the miserable condition of the dying prisoners. His courtiers congratulated him on his glorious achievement, and leaving a garrison of 3000 men in Calcutta, he returned to his capital, much elated with the belief that he had completely exterminated the English.

The Company's affairs in Bengal appeared now to be quite desperate, but Admiral Watson and Lieut. Col. Clive were soon at hand with relief. The dispersed members of the English settlements reassembled, and recovered their spirits. Calcutta was retaken and fortified; and the Subahdar was glad to make peace, and, on the 9th of February 1757, he swore on the Koran to preserve it inviolably. But in a few days after he invited Bussy, the French general in the Deccan, and also Law, the commander of a small party of French fugitives who had been in his service, to come to Bengal and join his army, in order to root out the English. The servants of the Company, convinced by the delays and evasions which took place in executing the articles of peace, that Surajah had no intention to be in friendship with the presidency, thought it necessary to consider of means to counteract his perfidy. At this time two of his chiefs, disgusted by his capricious tyranny, had each applied for the assistance of the English forces to depose him, and to set himself in his place. Of these two, the Governor and Council preferred Meer Jaffier as the most powerful, and most likely to deliver them from their implacable enemy.

In June 1757, a treaty was executed between the members of the presidency and Meer Jaffier, who had solemnly engaged and sworn, that as soon as he should be established as Subahdar of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, he would confirm all the articles agreed to by Surajah Dowlah. The enemies of either party, whether Indians or Europeans, should be the enemies of both. All French factories should remain in

possession of the English Company, and the French should never more be permitted to settle in any part of his dominions. He should pay a crore of rupees for the damage sustained at Calcutta, 50 lacks to the English inhabitants, seven lacks to the Armenian merchants, and 20 lacks to the other inhabitants, as a compensation for their losses when the town was captured. He also engaged to enlarge the territory in the neighbourhood of Calcutta, the Company paying the usual rent, and also to build no fort on the river lower than Hooghly. He also promised large donations to the soldiers and seamen; and likewise to maintain the English forces while in his service.

Lieut. Col. Clive, in pursuance of this treaty, put in motion his little army, consisting only of 900 Europeans, and 2,200 Indian soldiers. On the 23d of June 1757 he was opposed by an army of 50,000 foot, and 18,000 horse, with 50 pieces of cannon, assisted by 40 Frenchmen, who directed the management of the artillery.

To the astonishment of the civilized world, this immense army was completely defeated and overthrown by the military skill and talents of Colonel Clive, at the memorable battle of Plassy. The wretched Surajah fled from his palace in mean disguise on the night after the battle; and being soon after discovered, he was conveyed back to his palace and barbarously murdered, in the 20th year of his age, by order of Meeran, the son of Jaffier, (a youth of a disposition nearly as wicked as his own) after a reign of only fifteen months.

Immediately after this memorable battle, the conqueror proceeded to Muxadabad, then the capital of Bengal, and invested Meer Jaffier in the dignity of Subahdar of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa.

This extraordinary revolution, effected in one day by a handful of men, has been more important in its consequences than most of the protracted wars which have for centuries past convulsed the European world; since, independently of its raising at once the condition of the Company at Bengal, and all the inhabitants of Calcutta of whatever nation, from the greatest depth of misery to the highest state of prosperity, it laid the foundation for those immense acquisitions of territory which are now in the possession of the Company.

Meer Jaffier, the new sovereign, soon found himself distressed by the heavy payments he had engaged to make, to accomplish which he made extortions on his subjects, by which his government became extremely unpopular; which was increased by a dereliction of duty on the part of some of the Company's servants, who, contrary to the express and repeated prohibitions of the Court of Directors, began to carry on an inland trade in salt, betel-nut, and tobacco, claiming at the same time an exemption from duties, which by the Emperor's firman was restricted to goods imported and exported.

Jaffier's subjects became dissatisfied; his revenues were inadequate to his wants; his army became mutinous; and his own son-in-law, Mohamed Cossim Ally Khan, with many of his great officers, conspired against him. In this situation he was attacked by the Great Mogul, accompanied by a formidable army of Mahrattas. Thus environed, and finding he had no longer the friendship of the English Presidency, he retired to Calcutta, where he lived privately, under the protection of the Company, with a handsome allowance for his support.

In September 1760, Mohamed Cossim Ally Khan succeeded him in the sovereignty, under the sanction of the company, who, as an indemnification for the expences incurred in his exaltation and in maintaining forces for his protection, ceded to them the districts of *Burdwan*, *Midnapore*, and *Chitagong*, and engaged besides to pay up the balance stipulated with Meer Jaffier, and to fulfil all the covenants entered into with that prince. This proved a happy change to the inhabitants of those countries situated on the west side of the river Hooghly, who had long been harassed by the Mahratta freebooters in their predatory incursions, against which they were now secure.

In 1763 Mahomed Cossim Ally Khan, in consequence of a rupture with the presidency of Bengal, was defeated by the Company's forces; and in October 1763 he abandoned his dominions, carrying with him jewels and treasure to the amount of six millions sterling. In the mean time, the members of the presidency reinstated Meer Jaffier in the sovereignty in July 1763.

Sujah-Dowlah, the Nabob of Oude, having afforded protection to Cossim the abdicated prince, they jointly made war upon the Company; but were defeated at Buxar on the 22d of October, 1764. A part of Sujah's territory was thereupon occupied by the Company's forces, and on the 20th of May following (1765) he sustained a signal defeat at Culpee, after which he came to a resolution of surrendering himself and all his dominions to Lord Clive, then expected from England.

Lord Clive and the other members of the select committee, feeling it would be more honourable, and also more consistent with the views of the Company to acquire Sujah's friendship, by treating him with a generosity and moderation unknown in wars or politics in India, than by exacting rigorous conditions from a high spirited prince of great reputation through the whole empire, entered into a treaty with Sujah-Dowlah, by which they restored to him the whole of his dominions except the provinces of *Corah* and *Allahabad*, and of these they did not seek to make any advantage either for themselves or the Company.

Shah Aulum, though acknowledged as the Mogul emperor, of whom all the princes of Hindostan professed to hold their dignities, territories, and revenues, as his feudatory subjects, had hitherto had neither territories nor revenues at his command. Sujah-Dowlah, the nominal vizier of the nominal emperor, had undertaken to recover some of his provinces for him; but the events of the war having disappointed the emperor's hopes, he separated himself from Sujah after the battle of Buxar, and put himself under the protection of the Company.

Early in the year 1765, Meer Jaffier, the Subahdar of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, died. A controversy having arisen respecting the succession, the competitor threw the decision into the hands of the presidency, who resolved to support the claims of Nujum Dowlah, his natural son, being the nomination of his father.

In February 1765 they entered into a treaty with him. They agreed to secure to him the sovereignty, and to keep up such a force as should be necessary to support him in it. The Subahdar, on his part, bound himself to fulfil all the agréments entered into by his father, to keep no greater military force than would be necessary to support his dignity and the collection of the revenue, and to admit no Europeans into his service, and not to permit the French Company to erect any fortifications in his country.

A favourable opportunity having now offered for making a provision for the Great Mogul, who was under the protection of the Company at Calcutta, the Presidency, much to their honor and to the credit of the British Nation, put him in possession of the provinces of *Corah*, and *Allahabad*, yielding an annual revenue of 27 lacks of rupees, to which they added a settled revenue of 26 lacks, to be derived in consequence of the new arrangement from the provinces of *Bengal*, *Bahar*, and *Orissa*, the payment of which should be secured to him by the Company.

In gratitude for this important acquisition of real dominion and assured income, the Emperor gave the Company five firmans, all dated the 12th August 1765, whereby he formally made over to them the dewannee, or right of collecting for their own use the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, subject to the payment of an income of 26 lacks of rupees to himself, and a provision for the proper support of the Subahdar's Courts, they being also bound to keep up an army sufficient for the protection of the provinces. The Mogul, at the same time, confirmed to them the absolute property of the districts of *Burdwan*, *Midnapore*, and *Chitagong*,

and also the lands adjacent to Calcutta, formerly acquired from the Subahdars. By this transaction Shah Aulum, the universal sovereign of the country, acquired for the first time some portion of sovereign power, with a certain annual revenue amounting to about £600,000 sterling. The acquisition of the dewanee removed every source of discord with the Subahdar. Instead of an uncertain revenue, extorted from the subordinate Rajahs and Zemindars, most frequently by force of arms, he enjoyed a regular income of 5,386,131 rupees, equal to about £593,440 sterling, for the expence of his household and a few guards for the purpose of ceremony and ostentation.

The Company were bound to pay two fixed sums to the Emperor and the Subahdar, to support a military force for the defence of the provinces, and to defray the charge of collecting the revenue and all other expences, after which the revenue of a country, equal in extent and population to Great Britain and Ireland, and much exceeding them in fertility, was their own property; while their trade and that of the free British Merchants living under their protection, as well as that of the Natives, were secured against a repetition of the ravages and insults to which they had been frequently subjected, by the cupidity, malevolence, and caprice of the former Subahdars or Sovereigns of the country. By this arrangement while the power of the Subahdars is lessened by or rather brought back to its original state by an act of the Supreme Constitutional Government vested in the Emperor, that of the Company is enlarged by the transfer of the dewanee.

In 1766 the Company, in consequence of these territorial acquisitions, raised their dividend from 6 to 10 per cent. which, by generating stock-jobbing, induced a great number of people to become proprietors of East India Stock, by which the price was suddenly raised to 263 per cent; and such was the clamour of the new Proprietors, that contrary to the sense of the Directors, who prudently wished to apply these revenues to the payment of heavy debts incurred by the wars in India, a majority of votes, at a General Court on the 6th of May 1767, decided that the next dividend for the year should be 12½ per cent.

The excessive speculations in East India Stock at this time, and the control over the Directors by the new Proprietors with respect to dividends, attracted the notice of Parliament, and produced the Act of the 7 Geo. 3, cap. 48. prohibiting the practice of splitting votes by collusive conveyances of the stock of any public companies, with other appropriate regulations. Another Act of the same Session (cap. 49.) directed, that the dividends should be made after the 24th June 1767, by ballot and by general courts, summoned expressly for the purpose, and that no dividend above 10 per cent. for the year should be made before the next session of parliament: thereby rescinding the Company's declaration of a dividend of 12½ per cent., and thus the visionary speculations of the purchasers of India Stock vanished. In the same session (cap. 57.) an act passed whereby the Company, in consideration of these territorial revenues being secured to them for the short space of two years, became bound to pay £400,000 in each of these years into the Exchequer.

On the 23rd of February 1768 the prohibition of dividends above 10 per cent. was extended to the first of February 1769. By an act, which received the royal assent on the 20th of April 1769, the Company became bound to make an annual payment to government of £400,000 a year for the five ensuing years, in consideration of which their territorial revenues in India were continued to them for the same sum; and they were authorised to increase their dividends to 12½ per cent. by annual augmentations, not exceeding one per cent in any one year. And if instead of increasing they should lessen their dividends, a proportional deduction should take place in their payments into the Exchequer, which should cease entirely if they should be obliged to reduce their dividends so low as six per cent, and to be enlarged again in proportion to the dividends being augmented. It was further stipulated, that in case any money should remain in the Company's treasury after paying their simple contract

debts bearing interest, and reducing their bonded debt to a par with that owing to them by the public, they should lend such surplus money to the public at two per cent. They were also required to lay annual accounts of their exports and the state of their debts before the treasury. (9 Geo. 3. cap. 24.)

Agreeably to the permission thus obtained, the Company raised their dividends payable at Midsummer and Christmas 1769 from 10 to 11 per cent.

In 1770 an act passed (10 Geo. 3. c. 47.) for increasing the penalty on British subjects trading to India under foreign commissions, and for rendering the Company's servants amenable to trial in the Court of King's Bench in England for offences committed in India.

In September 1770 the Company, finding themselves warranted by the situation of their affairs, increased their dividends to 12 per cent, after it had stood a year at this rate it was further raised to 12½ per cent, at which rate it stood one year and a half, being the largest dividend ever received since the union of the two companies.

But in the year 1772, they were obliged to make a great and sudden reduction of the dividend to the low rate of six per cent, by a combination of unfortunate circumstances.

Although the Company had acquired a large territorial revenue, yet the increasing expences of their establishments in India, the mismanagement, profusion, and oppressive acts of some of their servants, the large sums remitted from Bengal to China,—and the heavy drain of £ 400,000 a year paid to Government, had hitherto rendered the acquisition beneficial only to the individuals in their service in India, and to Government at home. Their affairs became exceedingly embarrassed, which reduced them to the necessity of applying to Parliament for pecuniary assistance.

When the proposition was brought before Parliament in the spring of the year 1773 by the Minister, a number of other propositions were combined with it, which were thought to bear hard on the Company; but after much discussion and considerable opposition in both Houses of Parliament, an Act passed (13 Geo. 3. c. 63.) for regulating the affairs of the East India Company, as well in India as in Europe.

1st. The Directors, hitherto chosen annually, are henceforth to continue in office four years, six new ones being elected every year.

2d. No person returned from India is eligible to be chosen a Director until two years after his return.

3d. No Proprietor of less than £ 1000 of the Company's Stock, held at least for twelve months, is henceforth permitted to vote.

4th. The Government of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa is vested in a Governor General with a salary of £ 25,000 a year, and four Counsellors with a salary of £ 10,000 a year each; and Warren Hastings, Esq. is appointed the first Governor General.

5th. The Presidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bencoolen are rendered subordinate to that of Bengal.

6th. A Supreme Court of Judicature is established at Calcutta, consisting of a Chief Justice at £ 8000 a year, with three other Judges at £ 6000 a year each, all appointed by the Crown.

7th. The salaries of the Governor General, the Counsellors, and the Judges, are charged upon the territorial revenue.

8th. No person in the King's or Company's service is permitted to accept any presents; but Lawyers, Medical Men, and Clergymen may receive the customary fees.

9th. The Governor General, Counsellors, and Judges are prohibited from having any concern whatever in trade.

10th. No person residing in the Company's settlements is permitted to take more than 12 per cent. for a year's interest of money.

By another Act in the same session (c. 64.) Parliament advanced the Company £ 1,400,000 in Exchequer Bills, at an interest of 4 per cent. and agreed to forego the claim of £ 400,000 from the territorial revenues until the debt should be discharged; and no dividends to be made above 6 per cent. until the debt is so discharged; after which to divide 7 per cent. until the bonded debt is reduced to £ 1,500,000, and no bills from India to be accepted to a greater amount than £ 300,000 in any one year.

In 1773 an Act passed, in consequence of a great accumulation of tea in the Company's warehouses, authorizing the exportation of a large quantity to America, and allowing the custom duties to be drawn back. This proved a most unfortunate speculation. The Americans, at that time greatly dissatisfied, became outrageous, boarded the ships at Boston and Charleston, and threw the whole into the sea. It proved a total loss to the Company. The sales of tea at home were at this time greatly diminished by the increase of smuggling, which was greatly encouraged by duties amounting to cent. per cent. on the cost; hence the sales were reduced in 1773, and the four following years to 5,559,007 pounds, instead of 8,075,794 pounds, the average of the five preceding years.

In 1775, the Company acquired the province of Benares upon the continent of Hindostan, by a treaty with Azuf-ul Dowlah, the new Nabob of Oude.

In 1776, they acquired the property of Salsette, a fertile Island adjacent to Bombay, which their troops had taken from the Mahrattas in 1773.

In the year 1777, the debt due to government being paid, the Company raised their dividend to seven per cent.

In the year 1778, the French government entered into a treaty with the revolted colonies in America, and hence a war commenced with that nation. This event having been foreseen, the East India Directors sent directions to all their presidencies to be prepared for acting vigorously as soon as they should hear of hostilities having commenced. The notice was conveyed to India so very speedily, that in the month of July the French Company were deprived of all their settlements in Bengal and Coromandel, except Pondicherry, which after a gallant defence submitted also to the British arms on the 16th of October: many French ships were taken during this short but active campaign, the success of which totally extinguished the commerce and power of the French East India Company.

In 1779, the East India Company again turned their attention to the cultivation of indigo, against which there was no restraint, as the state of the American Colonies, where still attempts to produce a good article had failed, rendered it no object, while in the British West Indies it had made little or no progress. The Company cherished this revived branch of trade, and gave action and vigour to the cultivation of indigo in their territories, recently acquired at a sacrifice of nearly £ 80,000. Great advances were made to the cultivators to the extent of nearly a million sterling on the security of the produce, insomuch that it ultimately became one of the most valuable articles of exportation from India. Its superior quality recommended it to purchasers both at home and abroad, until the sales at the India House which in 1786 amounted to 245,011 pounds, producing at the sales £ 61,533—in 1810 had advanced gradually to 5,570,824 pounds, producing at the sales £ 1,942,328!

In 1779, the East India Company built, rigged, and armed three seventy four gun ships, which they presented as a free gift to government, besides a large sum of money in bounties to 6000 seamen for the service of the navy.

In 1780, notice was given to the Company by His Majesty's government, that the debt of £ 4,200,000 owing to them should be discharged on the 5th of April 1783, and that their exclusive privileges should be abolished, unless they would agree to pay £ 1,000,000 of money into the exchequer, and restrict their dividends in all time coming to eight per cent, and pay three fourths of the surplus profits over

that dividend into the Exchequer. After much discussion this demand was reduced to £600,000 for the renewal of their charter.

In 1781, (by an act of the 21 Geo. 3. c. 65) the charter was renewed, and received the royal assent on the 18th of July in that year. The Company became bound to pay £400,000 in full of all claims of the public upon them on the 21st of March in the following year, and their exclusive privileges were continued until the 1st day of March 1791, with three years notice, when after that day upon payment of £4,200,000 due by government their exclusive privileges should cease; but to have a right to continue a corporation, and carry on trade on their joint account and with their joint stock. After the payment of all charges and a dividend of eight per cent, three fourths of their surplus profits shall be paid into the Exchequer, and the remaining fourth may be applied in making an addition to the dividend not exceeding one per cent. in any one year, nor ever to rise above $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent upon the whole.

In the same year another act passed (21 Geo. 3. c. 70.) restricting the jurisdiction of the supreme court at Bengal, &c. (whose proceedings had been rigorous in the extreme, tending to drive the natives to desperation, and to ruin the British interest in India) within such bounds as it was hoped might prevent a repetition of the anarchy and oppression which of late had raised such alarming disturbances in the country.

It was particularly provided, that the Mahomedans and Hindoos should have the benefit of their own laws, which they knew and would obey, and that the authority of fathers and masters of families should be preserved inviolate according to their usages and the rules of their casts.

The Company having found that they possessed a surplus of £288,025 17s. 10d. after paying £400,000 to Government, instead of dividing it or adding it to their stock, resolved to employ it in their trade and to keep a distinct account of it under the title of *The Company's Separate Fund*.

The Company's possessions in the south parts of Hindostan, and also their ally the Nabob of Arcot, had long been harassed by a war with Hyder Ally. This formidable usurper had formerly reduced the presidency of Madras and the Nabob to the humiliating necessity of accepting a peace dictated by himself. Having however soon afterwards secured the assistance of the Mahrattas and other petty princes, with a considerable number of French officers and soldiers, he renewed the war, defeated the British army, took the city of Arcot, ravaged the country, and produced great distress to the Company's servants and allies; which continued until Sir Edward Hughes and Sir Eyre Coote arrived in India, when by the aid of these able commanders the scale of victory was turned in favour of the Nabob and the Company, and the harassed country thereby obtained some respite from the miseries of war.

In October 1781, the Berar Mahrattas were, by the able and judicious management of Mr. Hastings, detached from their alliance with Hyder Ally; and in 1782, the Poona Mahrattas entered into a friendly and liberal treaty with the Company, by which the formidable confederacy of princes, which threatened the extinction of the British name in India, was dissolved.

In 1782 Hyder Ally died; but his enmity to the British in India was inherited and fully afterwards manifested by his son and successor Tippoo Saib.

The state of the East India Company, as well as the transactions in Hindostan, now became a subject of inquiry in every session of Parliament.

In November 1783, Mr. Fox, then one of the Secretaries of State, brought in a bill for vesting the affairs of the Company in the hands of seven noblemen and gentlemen as directors, assisted by nine others who should be proprietors of East India Stock, holding not less than £2000 each. The plan of the bill preserved the Company's commercial privileges, and left untouched the question of territorial right; but it intirely divested the Directors and also the Court of Proprietors of the admi-

nistration of their territorial and even of their commercial affairs. The new directors were named in the bill, and were not removable except by an address to His Majesty by either house of Parliament, and their successors were to be named by the king. The assistant directors, who were also named in the bill, were removeable at the pleasure of any five of the principal directors, and they were to be disqualified from sitting in Parliament, with other similar restrictions. Another bill was also introduced by Mr. Fox for preventing arbitrary and despotic proceedings in the administration of the territorial possessions. This bill defined the powers of the Governor General, Presidents, and Council, and required their ordinances to be made public in the Persian and Hindoo languages in every proper place. The Company's governors not to make war but in self defence, and to be prohibited from acquiring or exchanging territory, making treaties of partition, hiring troops to the native princes, hiring any property to the Company's civil servants, or establishing any monopoly, and every illegal present was to be recoverable by any person for his own benefit. The bill contained other regulations, guarding the property of the princes of India, and for terminating the disputes between the Nabob of Arcot and the Rajah of Tanjore, and adjusting the claims of British subjects on these princes. It excluded also from a seat in Parliament all agents of the Company or protected princes, and all persons under prosecutions for offences alleged to be committed while in the Company's service in India.

These bills were violently opposed by Mr. Pitt, not yet a minister, as well as Mr. Dundas and other members of the house. This great question agitated the whole nation. The advocates for the Company supported their arguments against the violation of chartered rights, and the solemn pledge of the legislature, by accounts produced to the House of Commons, shewing that the Company had, during the preceding 15 years, paid upon their trade to the customs and excise £19,889,673, besides three ships of the line and six thousand seamen for the navy, that they had suffered losses in the late war to the extent of £3,856,666, besides the cost and freightage of the tea sent to America, and that, during the whole of those 15 years, the whole of their dividends only amounted to £3,788,644.

The bill was carried in the House of Commons, but was rejected on the 17th of December in the House of Lords, soon after which a change of ministry took place.

On the 14th of January 1784, Mr. Pitt, now appointed First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, brought in a bill for the better government of India, which he proposed should be effected by a Board of Commissioners, to be appointed from among the Ministers and other Members of the Privy Council. This bill was however rejected by a majority of eight, and on the 25th of March the Parliament was dissolved.

On the 13th of August 1784, a bill passed for the better regulation and management of the affairs of the East India Company, and of the British possessions in India, and for establishing a Court of Judicature for the more speedy and effectual trial of persons accused of offences committed in the East Indies. It established a Board of Commissioners for superintending and controlling the civil and military government, and revenues of the territorial possessions, and also the affairs of the East India Company.

1st. The Governor and Council of Calcutta retain the controlling power over the other Presidencies.

2d. Persons going to India on the Civil or Military Service, not to be under 15 or above 22 years of age, with an exception to Officers who had served one year in the Army or Militia.

The remaining sections of the Act direct the mode of proceeding against British subjects, accused of extortion or other misdemeanours committed in India.

On the 11th of March 1804, the war with Tippoo Saib, which had long distressed both his own dominions and the presidency of Madras, was terminated. Each party restored the forts and territories taken from the other. Tippoo gave up all pretensions to the Carnatic; and he engaged to allow the Company all the commercial privileges in his dominions which had been promised by Hyder Ally his father.

The high duty on tea, which in 1772 amounted to 200 per cent. upon the sale price, and afterwards fluctuated between 64 and 128 per cent. held out great temptations to illicit importations from foreign ports, which excited the most daring enterprizes on the part of the smugglers, and was not neglected by the Foreign East India Companies who supplied them with tea, wrought silks, nankeens, and other articles, for the purpose of being illicitly introduced into the country.

Pounds of Tea.

In the nine years preceding 1780—107 ships, belonging to the Continent of Europe, imported 118,783,811 79 ships, belonging to the East India Company, imported 50,759,451 being on an average 13,198,201 pounds imported annually by the Continental companies, and 5,639,939 by the British East India Company.

At this time the consumption of the British dominions, including smuggled tea, was about - 13,338,140 And that of the Continent of Europe at most only - - - - - 5,500,000

It was evident that the only efficacious remedy for the excessive smuggling, which prevailed to the great injury of the revenue, as well as to the East India Company, was by a reduction of duty to so low a rate, as not only to destroy the smugglers' profit, but also to annihilate the fabrication of false and deteriorated tea made of the leaves of slow, ash, and other trees, which prevailed much at this period; and it appearing that the enormous quantity of nearly 13,000,000 of pounds, must have consisted of smuggled and counterfeit tea, after obtaining the necessary information, an act passed on the 20th of August 1784 (24 Geo. III. c. 38. sess. 2.) repealing all the existing duties on tea, and substituting a duty only of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the Company's sale prices: allowing at the same time an exportation of tea delivered from the Company's warehouses free of all duty whatsoever. To make up the deficiency of revenue arising from this regulation, an additional duty was laid on windows as a commutation, which was calculated to produce £600,000 sterling annually. In order most effectually to remove the possibility of introducing smuggled tea, the Company prudently purchased the tea which the foreign companies had on hand, which was effected in the years 1784, 1785, and 1786, to the enormous amount of 17,312,248 pounds. This judicious act on the part of Company produced the most salutary results. The prosperity of the Company in conjunction with all the fair traders in tea was eminently promoted, while a considerable increase of revenue arising both from tea and sugar was obtained by government. The quantity of tea purchased at the Company's sales, which in 1783 amounted only to 5,857,883 pounds, rose in the year 1785 to 16,307,433. From this period the quantity of tea imported by the foreign companies from China, (which in 1784 was 19,072,300 pounds) continued decreasing every year, insomuch that in 1791 it was reduced to 2,291,560 pounds; whereas the Company's importations, which in 1783 amounted only to 4,138,295 pounds, continued increasing every year, and since 1786 has averaged considerably more than 24,000,000 of pounds. The new duty of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. which in the year ending 1st of September 1786 produced only £285,460, was increased in 1794 to £352,800, and although the duties have since (in consequence of the pressure of the war) been increased to 96 per cent. on the sale amount, yet the consumption has been augmented even under this pressure to 24,540,923 pounds, in 1810, yielding a revenue of £3,548,860.

Such were the advantages resulting from the commutation act in Europe. In China its operation was not less beneficial. The enlarged purchases of tea; produced an agreement to encourage an extended consumption of British manufactures, and the demand particularly for woollens soon after increased very considerably in China; and in order to encourage still farther the consumption of British goods in that country, the Company directed their supercargoes to sell without profit.

In 1785 there was exported 4,534 pieces of cloth, 60,000 pieces of long ells, and 332 pieces of camblets.
In 1791 there was exported 6,456 do. 150,000 do. and 2,340 do.

The bullion exported in 1785 amounted to £724,317.—In 1791 it was reduced to £422,098.

The Company's trade being enlarged, in consequence of the conclusion of peace and the commutation act, a greater amount of active capital became necessary to carry it on.—In 1784

	Goods.	Bullion.	Total.	
The exports were	£ 418,747	- - none	- 418,747	Imports £ 4,605,765.
In 1786	- - - 551,317	- - 749,833	- 1,253,482	do. 5,214,386.

Accordingly, by the act of the 26 Geo. III. c. 62. which passed on the 5th of July 1786, the Company were authorized to add £800,000 to their capital stock, and also to sell or mortgage any part of the annuity of £36,226 16s. remaining after the sale made under the authority of the act of the 23 Geo. II. c. 1.—The new stock was subscribed at 155 per cent. and consequently produced £1,240,000, and the Company's capital joint stock was thus raised to *four millions*.

Mr. Hastings, who was nominated Governor General by Act of Parliament, and had repeatedly been appointed to that high office, arrived in England on the 16th of June 1785. On the 26th of the same month, Mr. Burke (who had brought heavy accusations against him during the preceding session) gave formal notice of his intention to impeach him for high crimes and misdemeanours, alleged to have been committed in India many years before. After long debates in this and succeeding sessions, the prosecution was sanctioned by the Commons, and on the 14th of May 1787, articles of impeachment were sent to the Lords. The vast extent of the charges, and the eloquence of the accusers (which was supposed to exceed any display made before a Court of Judicature in any age or country) protracted the trial, which continued from year to year until the 23d of April 1795, exactly eight years from its commencement.—The Lord Chancellor delivered the decision of the Peers in the following words:

“ Mr. Hastings,

“ The House of Lords after a very minute investigation have acquitted you of all the charges of high crimes and misdemeanours preferred against you by the Commons, and every article thereof; and you, and your bail are discharged on your paying the fees.”

Mr. Hastings had presided over India for thirteen years, where he displayed great and extraordinary talents in situations of much difficulty. The Company, in consideration of his long, important, and faithful services, discharged the expences he incurred by the prosecution, amounting to upwards of £70,000, and settled upon him an annuity of £5,000.

In 1788, the British government, thinking it necessary to augment the British force in India, sent out four regiments to be conveyed in the Company's ships, and paid out of their revenues. The Directors objected to this as unnecessary, but instead of four regiments the legislature passed an act (28 Geo. III. c. 8.) whereby the Commissioners for India affairs were authorized to send out troops at their own discretion, not exceeding 8,045 men to be conveyed to India at the Company's expence, and paid out of their territorial revenue.

In 1789 the Company revived the exportation of tin to China, which had hitherto unaccountably been resigned to the Dutch, who derived considerable profit by sending it from a settlement they had on the east side of Sumatra. The proprietors of the tin mines in Cornwall felt the advantage, while it produced a saving in the exportation of bullion. In China the superior quality of the Cornish tin, joined to the augmented demand for tin, soon gave it a decided preference.

The Company's trade continuing to increase, and their territorial revenues being exhausted almost every year by the heavy establishments they had to support, it was found necessary to make a further augmentation of their capital stock; and therefore, by the act of the 29 Geo. III. c. 65. they were authorized to add one million to their capital stock. The new stock being subscribed at 174 per cent. produced £1,740,000, and the Company's joint stock was now five millions.

In 1790, the Company, with a view to increase the exports, increased the tonnage formerly allowed in private trade, and they also permitted their own servants, and the free merchants in India to load goods homeward on their own account at an easy freight, in ships not intirely filled up.

In 1791, the privileged tonnage of the Company's commanders and officers was again enlarged.

The Rajah of Travancore, one of the Company's allies, being involved in hostilities with Tippoo Saib, the Marquis Cornwallis, then Governor General, marched in different directions against Tippoo, who resisted the attacks of the combined army with great bravery; but after defending himself for almost two years, he was compelled to sign a treaty on the 17th of March 1792, whereby he ceded about half of his dominions to be divided among the Company, the Nizam, and the Mahrattas. Tippoo became bound besides to pay all the expenses of the war, and to deliver two of his sons into the hands of Lord Cornwallis, as hostages for the faithful performance of the treaty. By this treaty the Company acquired an annual revenue of £240,000, and received £1,600,000 in money.

In 1792, the merchants of Liverpool, joined by those in different parts of the kingdom, now that the Company's charter was about to expire, made considerable efforts to obtain a participation in the trade of India and China; but in consequence of the French revolutionary war, which involved this country soon after in hostilities with France, their attention appears to have been directed to other objects.

In this year it was thought expedient to send Lord Macartney with a suitable retinue on an embassy to China. The Company's servants and all Europeans in general had been exposed for a great length of time to the oppression and insults of the officers of the Chinese government without the means of redress, as it was found impossible to convey their complaints to the Emperor. The great increase of the demand for tea rendered it of importance, that an attempt should be made to obtain some additional protection, if not greater privileges, from the Chinese government. Lord Macartney was charged with splendid presents to the Emperor, consisting of the most elegant and superb productions of art, calculated to impress his Chinese Majesty with an exalted idea of the advanced state of science in this country. In August 1793, the embassy arrived at the mouth of the river Pei-ho, the nearest port to Pekin, and travelled about 50 miles beyond that capital, where the Emperor then resided. He received the embassy politely, and seemed much pleased with the presents sent him by the King of a Country so far from his own. And in return he gave the ambassador a letter to present to His Britannic Majesty. All that the Chinese consider as belonging to an embassy being now completed, the ambassador was precluded from entering upon any negotiation whatever, by a notification that preparations were made for conveying him and his retinue to Canton. The journey by canals and land conveyance lasted about seventy days, and the conveyance was splendid. Two great officers of the court attended, and Lord Macartney so far gained their

friendship, that their letters to the Emperor procured some favourable alterations in the conduct of the officers of the Chinese government at Canton, and also the removal of a Governor or Viceroy, who had been hostile to the British residents.

In 1793, an act of the 33 Geo. III. c. 47. authorised the dividends upon the debt of £ 4,200,000, due by government to the Company, to be ingrafted in the three per cent. reduced annuities; which is declared to be a redemption of the debt, except that whatever part the Company may retain as their property in their corporate capacity shall, in the event of their privileges being terminated, be repaid them at par. By the same act the Company were authorised to add another million to their capital by subscriptions. This additional stock produced £ 2,000,000, being subscribed at 200 per cent. The same act directed that a part of this money should be applied in reducing the Company's bonds to £ 1,500,000.

In the same session another act passed (33 Geo. III. c. 52.) by which the exclusive privileges of the Company, and their territorial possessions are continued to them until the first day of March 1814, on which day the privileges may cease on paying whatever sum the public may then owe the Company; provided three years notice shall previously have been given.

- 1st. His Majesty may appoint Commissioners for the affairs of India, who are to direct the administration of the Revenues, and the Civil and Military Government, for which purpose the Company's books and dispatches must be submitted to their inspection.
- 2nd. The expense of the Board and its officers, limited to £ 16,000 a year, is to be defrayed by the Company.
- 3rd. The government of India is vested in a Governor and three Counsellors in each of the presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, the two latter being subordinate to the former, the Governor of which is Governor General of all the territories in India.
- 4th. The Governor and Councillors are to be appointed by the Directors, and no person shall be eligible to the Council who has not resided 12 years in India in the Company's service.
- 5th. The Directors may appoint persons provisionally to any of these offices in case of vacancies, and in case no such appointments shall be made the office shall devolve on the person next in rank at the time; except the Commander of the forces, who shall not succeed to the government except he be expressly appointed to the provisional succession.
- 6th. His Majesty by his Sign Manual, countersigned by the President and Board of Commissioners, may remove any of the Company's officers or servants in India.
- 7th. 'And forasmuch as to pursue schemes of conquest and extension of dominion in India are repugnant to the wish, the honor, and policy of this nation,' the Governor General shall not make war without the express order of the Court of Directors, or of the secret Committee and the Board of Commissioners, unless the Company or their allies are attacked, or that preparations are made by an enemy for attacking them; and in order to give energy and dispatch to the measures of government, the Governors are empowered to act without the concurrence or against the opinion of their council, but in that case taking the whole responsibility upon themselves.
- 8th. The Directors shall not send out more Writers or Cadets than are necessary to supply vacancies, and no person can be appointed whose age is under 15 or above 22 years; but the commissioned officers, who have been one year in actual service in his Majesty's army or in the militia or fencibles, shall be eligible as Cadets.

- 9th. No British

- Company's ships, and in time of war the freight shall be raised with the approbation of the Commissioners in such proportion as the Company themselves pay for their freight.
- 18th. The servants of the Company, except such as are engaged in juridical or military duties, and those prohibited by their covenants, may act as agents for the sale of goods lawfully shipped by individuals, and for providing the goods allowed to be imported by them in return; and the private merchants licensed by the Company have also permission to act as agents.
- 19th. British subjects in India shall not reside in any place more than ten miles distant from one of the principal settlements, unless specially licensed by the Company, or by the Governor of a principal settlement.
- 20th. The duty of five per cent. formerly paid to the Company on the goods imported in private trade, and the charge of two per cent. for landing and selling the same are both abrogated; and instead of which the Company are to charge three per cent. on the sale amount of all goods brought from India, (but not from China) as full compensation for the expences of hoyage, landing, cartage, storage, sorting, lotting, and selling, which with the freight constitute the whole charge payable to the Company on India goods imported.
- 21st. The goods imported from China in private trade are still liable to the former charges of five and two per cent; and the Company's engagements with their commanders, officers, and servants, remain unaffected by this act.
- 22d. In order to encourage individuals to engage in the trade of importing raw materials for manufactures from India, and to secure to the manufacturers the means of furnishing themselves therewith, the Company are required to make speedy and frequent sales of raw-silk, sugar, cotton, cotton-yarn, wools, skins, dye-stuffs, drugs, and other articles of raw material, whether imported in private trade, or on the Company's own account, in moderate lots, agreeable to regulations framed by the Directors, and approved by the Commissioners.
- 23d. All goods imported in private trade shall be secured in the Company's warehouses, and sold by public auction for account of the proprietors.
- 24th. The net produce of the territorial revenues shall be applied in the following order of preference and to no other purpose.
- 1st. In supporting a sufficient military and marine force in India, maintaining forts, and supplying military and naval stores.
 - 2nd. In paying the interest of the debt owing in India.
 - 3rd. In defraying the expence of the civil and commercial establishments of the several settlements.
 - 4th. A sum not under a crore of current rupees shall be issued every year to the Commercial Boards, to be applied in the purchase of investments—namely £ 1,125,000 sterling.
 - 5th. Whatever surplus remains, shall be applied to the reduction of the Company's debt in India, or to such other purpose as the Court of Directors with the approbation of the Commissioners shall direct.
- 25th. The governments in India may draw bills on the Company for the purpose of transferring the India debt to Great Britain to the extent of £ 500,000 a year, payable either to the creditors or other persons advancing money for the purpose of paying off the India debt.

- 26th. The Company's profits in Europe, after paying interest and charges, shall be applied as follows, in the following order of preference.
- 1st. In paying a dividend on the capital stock of the Company of 10 per cent, the first payment to be made at Michaelmas 1793.
 - 2d. In setting apart annually £500,000 for the payment of bills drawn for the purpose of transferring the India debt to Great Britain, till the debt in India shall be reduced to £2,000,000.
 - 3d. In paying into the Exchequer the sum of £500,000 annually, to be applied as Parliament shall direct, except as in the act is otherwise specially provided.
 - 4th. Until the India debt shall be reduced to £2,000,000, the ultimate surplus may be applied to the further reduction of it, or in payment of debts at home except India bonds, to the amount of £1,500,000, or it may be invested in goods to be sent to India or China.
 - 5th. When the India debt shall be reduced to £2,000,000, and the bonded debt to £1,500,000, one-sixth part of the surplus, after the abovementioned payments are made, shall be applied to augment the dividends on the Company's capital Stock; and the other five-sixth parts shall be paid into the Bank, in the name of the Commissioners for the reduction of the national debt. The account shall be kept under the title of *The guarantee fund of the United Company of Merchants of England trading to India*, until the sums so paid with growing interest upon them shall amount to £12,000,000, after which the surplus shall be paid into the Exchequer, as the property of the public in full right. But, if the India debt shall afterwards rise above £2,000,000 or the bond debt rise above £1,500,000, the above mentioned applications for the reduction of them shall again take place, and continue so long as those debts exceed the prescribed limits. When the guarantee fund shall have accumulated to £12,000,000, the dividends growing upon it shall be applied to make up the Company's dividend to ten per cent, if at any time their funds appropriated to that purpose shall prove insufficient.
- 27th. In case of the Company's exclusive privilege being terminated, and their funds, after discharging every claim upon them, not being sufficient to allow £200 to the proprietors for every £100 stock, the guarantee fund shall be liable to make good such deficiency: and whatever surplus there may be, over making good such deficiency, shall belong to the public.
- 28th. If the payments into the Exchequer and the Bank shall at any time be found prejudicial to the affairs of the Company, they may be suspended by order of the Lords of the Treasury.
- 29th. If those payments shall be rendered impracticable by the extraordinary expences incurred by war, or preparations for war, the arrears of them shall not be permitted to retard the accumulation of the guarantee fund, but shall be paid to the public on the termination of the exclusive privilege, if the funds shall be sufficient after paying off all debts, to allow the proprietors £200 for every £100 of their capital stock; failing which, the claim of the public for arrears shall drop.
- 30th. This act shall not affect the right of the public, or of the Company, to the territorial possessions beyond the term now granted.
- 31st. After the Company shall have paid £500,000 to the public in January 1794, their separate fund may be applied in making an addition of one-half per cent to the annual dividend of ten per cent.

- 32nd. For the purpose of protecting the funds of the Company, during their exclusive privileges, from being burthened with improper charges, they are restricted from granting any new salary or pension exceeding £ 200 a year, without the approbation of the Commissioners.
- 33rd. The Directors are required to lay a state of their accounts of every kind before both Houses of Parliament in April in every year.
- 34th. There being unsettled claims between the public and the Company, all such as were prior to the 24th of December 1792 are cancelled on both sides, and after that period the expences of His Majesty's troops are at the charge of the Company.
- 35th. All His Majesty's subjects residing in Great Britain, the Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, Man, America, or the West Indies, are strictly prohibited from trading to or being in India, unless licensed by the Company, and ships and vessels of such illicit traders, and their persons shall be seized by the Company's Governor and Agents, and the illicit traders shall be sent to England to answer for their offences; and persons discharged from the Company's service or protection, and remaining in India after the proper time allowed for their departure, are to be considered as illicit traders.
- 36th. All bullion and merchandize shipt for India, except the property of the Company and persons authorised by this act, and all goods taken out of any homeward bound ship before her arrival in England, shall be forfeited with double the value; and the commander or officer, knowingly permitting such unlawful loading or unloading, shall for every such offence forfeit £ 1000, besides all wages owing him, and shall be incapable of serving the Company afterwards.
- 37th. British subjects as above described, trading to India under the authority of any foreign prince or state, shall forfeit £ 500 for every such offence.
- 38th. The Governors, and the Officers of the Revenue, and of Justice in India, are prohibited from having any concern in trade, except on account of the Company.
- 39th. The Judges of the Supreme Court shall not have any concern whatever in trade.
- 40th. No British subject shall be concerned in the inland trade in salt, betel-nut, tobacco, or rice, except on account of the Company, or by their licence.
- 41st. No person shall send East India goods to Europe by the way of Suez or Egypt, or by any other channel of conveyance than what is directed by this act.
- 42nd. The servants of the Company who are not prohibited from trading on their own account, and the free merchants may sell goods in India to the subjects of any foreign state, and may act as agents for sales and returns to any foreign country or foreign merchants.

Such were the chief of the numerous provisions of the existing charter act.

In the year 1794, the French were deprived of their settlements at Chandernagore, Pondicherry, Karical, Yanam, and Mahe, and also of their factory at Surat, which totally annihilated the whole of their East India trade.

In the same year, the East India Company made an offer to His Majesty of raising and clothing three regiments of one thousand men each for his service during the war; but on its being signified that a bounty for seamen would be more acceptable, the money was applied in this way.

The Company about this time introduced in India the Italian method of winding raw silk, in consequence of which the demand for Bengal silk was very much enlarged, not less to the benefit of the British manufacturer, than to the cultivators in India. Heretofore, the Company carried on

this trade to a loss, which amounted to no less than £884,744 in nine years from 1776 to 1785. In order still more to render the trade accommodating to the manufacturer, and beneficial to the country, and to provide against the difficulties of obtaining Italian silks in consequence of the war, and to furnish the manufactures with thrown or Organzine silk, and employ the mills as well as the silk weavers, they employed the mills in organizing such of their Bengal silk as should be found best adapted for the operation, and at the same time sent orders to their agents to pay the utmost attention to the quality of the raw silk, and also to enlarge the investments.

In the year 1795, the duty of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the sale price of teas, as settled by the commutation act in 1784, was increased to 20 per cent. The duty has been further increased since by different Sessions of Parliament, until it reached in 1809 to 96 per cent. which, with the advance laid on by the retailers, has doubled the price to the consumers.

In March 1797, by the act of the 37 Geo. III. c. 31. the Company were authorized to add £2,000,000 by subscriptions to their capital stock: but they have not thought fit to avail themselves of this privilege.

In July 1797, an act passed, (37 Geo. III. c. 97.) confirming the privileges granted to the United States of America by a treaty of commerce in 1794, by which they were permitted to carry on trade with the Company's territories in India, in articles not prohibited by law, on paying only the same duties paid by British vessels, and paying such port charges as are paid in the ports of the United States by British vessels. It was stipulated that they should not interfere with the coasting trade or carrying trade in India; that their vessels should proceed to their own ports from India, and deliver their cargoes there, and to no other part of the world; and that in time of war they should not export from India any military or naval stores, or rice. These important concessions, on the part of the British government, were to be in force for 12 years after the ratification of the treaty. The Americans reaped great advantages from this indulgence, from their being almost the only nation which was not at war during the existence of the treaty.

It being thought expedient to extend the same indulgence to other friendly powers, another act passed in the same session, (c. 117.) permitting them to import into and export from the British possessions in India all kinds of goods not prohibited by the Directors of the Company, nor by law or existing treaties; and the Directors are required to frame and promulgate regulations for conducting the trade,

In the year 1799, by the act of 39 Geo. III. c. 59. India goods, intended for exportation, may be warehoused on paying duties, which vary from two to seven and a half per cent. on the different species, calculated on the sale prices, together with the convoy duties, and may be taken out for exportation on merely giving security that they shall not be reloaded. On the goods intended for home consumption the act imposed new duties, considerably heavier than those established by the consolidation act in 1797, with an allowance of drawback on some particular articles in case of exportation.

Tippoo Saib, the Sultan of the Mysore, smarting under the losses he had sustained by the former war, and by the treaty of peace with Marquis Cornwallis, and conceiving that the war between Great Britain and France would afford him a favourable opportunity of retaliating on the Company, entered into engagements with the King of Cabul early in the year 1796, and in 1797 he sent ambassadors to the Governor of the Isle of France. His object in both negotiations was to obtain a powerful co-operation for the purpose of exterminating the English Company, and dividing their possessions between himself and his allies. His ambassadors obtained a very small military force from

the Isle of France. The reception of this force, coupled with the augmentation of his army ever since the termination of the preceding war, was considered as indicative of an approaching rupture.

Lord Mornington, then Governor-General, lost no time in strengthening the alliance with the Nizam of the Deccan and the Mahrattas, and ordered the Coromandel and Bombay armies to assemble in force. After some correspondence with Tippoo, who endeavoured to gain time, hostilities were commenced. His armies were repeatedly defeated, and at last on the 4th of May 1799, his capital of Seringapatam was taken by assault, in the defence of which the Sultan was slain; and his dominions were divided among the Company, the Nizam, and the Mahrattas, and the infant representative of the old Rajahs of the Mysore, to whom the original territories of his ancestors were allotted. A liberal provision was also made for the children and relatives of Tippoo, the fallen prince.

In 1799, the Company were required by the legislature to desist from the exportation of the large quantity of copper, which by the act 1793 they were obliged to export every year.

In August 1801, the East India Directors ordered that the government of Bencoolen should be reduced to a residency, under the management of a resident and four assistants, subject to the immediate government of Bengal. This arrangement was confirmed by the 42 Geo. III. c. 29.

In June 1803, as a further indulgence to the private trade, the Company gave notice that they did not propose to adhere strictly to the charter act, by confining the exports of merchandize to the produce of Great Britain; but would allow foreign goods to be shipped by individuals in such moderate quantities as should not materially interfere with their own exports.

In August 1803, the Company in a general court came to the resolution to present to government the use of 10,000 tons of shipping for the public service; and the ships were accordingly employed for six months at the Company's expence, to guard the coast against an invasion, then threatened, and on other services.

On the 14th of February 1804 a fleet of 16 of the Company's ships, deeply laden, on their passage from China with ten country ships under their convoy, fell in with the French Admiral Linois, having under his command a ship of 80 guns, two large frigates, a corvette of 30 guns, and a brig of 18 guns. Three of the Company's ships under the orders of Captain Dance, who as senior commander acted as commodore of the fleet, attacked the French squadron with such spirit that they made their escape and were afterwards chased by the British Indiamen as long as was consistent with the safety of their cargoes of immense value. Captain Dance was rewarded by the honor of knighthood, besides a handsome annuity for life settled on him by the Company.

In 1805, the Island of Pulo Penang, (which, by the advice of Sir John M'Pherson then Governor General, was purchased from the King of Queda in 1786,) in consideration of an annual payment of 10,000 dollars, was established as a regular government, subject to the Governor General of India, the same as Madras and Bombay. It is considered as a settlement of great importance both in a political and commercial point of view. It has since been called Prince of Wales's Island. The ground which was covered with trees was cleared, and a Town, called George Town, was built on the East part of the island. Its harbour is exempted from all storms, and accessible at all seasons. Its inhabitants, consisting of British, Dutch, Portuguese, Armenians, Arabians, Persees, Chulias from Coromandel, Malays, Buggusses from Borneo, Birmahs, Javanese, and others were estimated at 20,000; but both the population and trade have considerably increased. The chief articles of produce are pepper of the best quality, betel-nut, and coffee.

The connection with the Nabob of Arcot and the Madras government, which commenced in 1751, has been kept up with him and his successors by the protection afforded to his dominions by

the Company's forces against the reiterated attempts of Hyder Ally and his son Tippoo to wrest them from him. As a compensation for the expence incurred, the Nabob Wallajah, in 1787, bound himself and his successors to pay 15 lacks of star pagodas (8s. Sterling each) to the treasury of Madras. But many individuals having claims upon him for money lent and for other considerations, he found himself unable to discharge all the demands upon him; Lord Cornwallis, Governor General in India in 1792 entered into a new treaty with him, by which the Company became bound to keep up constantly a sufficient force for the protection of the Carnatic, and accepted the Nabob's obligation to pay only *nine* lacks instead of *fifteen*, and also the further sum of 6,21,105 pagodas for the purpose of paying off his debts, to be paid annually until the whole should be completely discharged. In consequence of this agreement, the Company not only assumed the payment to his private creditors, but took upon them to weigh the validity of his debts, many of which were disputable. To accomplish these purposes, the Nabob put in possession of the Company a large portion of his dominions, the revenue of which they were to collect and employ agreeable to the treaty, which was guaranteed by Parliament.

In the year 1801 the Nabob Azeem ul Dowlah, grandson of Wallajah, made over to the Company the entire possession of the government of the Carnatic, reserving to himself the title and dignity of Nabob and one-fifth part of the net revenue for the support of himself and family, besides jaghires or pensions allotted to his kindred and others, and several payments to charitable establishments; the Company undertaking to support a sufficient military force for the protection of the country and for the honorary guard of his person and his palace. In consequence of these stipulations, the Company stand in the place of the Nabob with respect to such of the private debts as shall remain unsettled, amounting, as stated by the claimants, to £ 5,600,000 sterling, most of which are said to be 40 years standing.

In order to bring these matters to a final settlement, the Company with the concurrence of the claimants, in July 1805, appointed three gentlemen to be Commissioners for investigating the claims and ascertaining the sum due to each person who may be found to have an equitable claim upon the Nabob.

On the 19th of November 1806, Shah Aulum, the Great Mogul, died at Delhi, and was succeeded by his son Akber. This monarchy (from being the most powerful in the world) has for a length of time been merely nominal.

In 1788, the aged Mogul was made a prisoner by Gholam Khandur, his own General and the Commander of his small army, who had the inhumanity to put out his eyes, to plunder his treasure, and insult the ladies of his family. This ungrateful wretch was put to death by Scindia, the Mahratta Chief, who took possession of the country allotted for the support of the unfortunate monarch, and thenceforth kept him in the most miserable indigence, a melancholy example of fallen grandeur. He was placed under the charge of the French General Perin who, besides holding an independent sovereignty, was the Commander of Scindia's army.

In order to deliver the Emperor of Hindoostan and his family from the miserable situation in which they were placed, and finally to destroy the French influence in India, the British army attacked and defeated the combined French and Mahratta forces on the 11th of September 1803. And immediately took possession of Delhi, or rather then the prison of the aged blind Monarch, for whom and his family an honourable support was allotted by the Company which he enjoyed during his life, and which is continued to his family.

In 1803, a number of individuals were incorporated as a joint Stock Company with a capital

of £ 200,000 with power to enlarge it as far as £ 300,000, for the purpose of constructing wet docks for the accommodation of the ships of the East India Company, which had heretofore discharged their cargoes near as far down the river as Gravesend, which was found very inconvenient. The new docks are situated at Blackwall; they are enclosed by proper walls and ditches, and are appropriated solely to the ships in the East India Trade. The business is conducted by thirteen directors, four of whom must be directors of the East India Company. Their profits are restricted to 10 per cent. and they must have no concern, as a Company, in building, owning, or repairing ships. They are entitled to receive 14s. a ton for British built ships, and 12s. for India built ships navigated by Lascars. The hatches of every ship arriving from India or China must be locked down before her arrival at Gravesend, and the Captain or one of the two officers next in rank to him must remain on board until she is moored in the docks and the keys delivered to an officer of the East India Company, who are required to provide covered waggons, securely locked, for conveying their goods from the docks to their warehouses. These regulations with many others of minor importance will be found in the act of the 43 Geo. III. c. 126. and the act of the 46 Geo. III. c. 113.

In September 1807, the East India Company made an offer to government to import Sunn hemp for the use of the navy on account of the public, which being accepted and money advanced for that purpose, this valuable article which previous experiments had demonstrated to be equal, and in some instances superior to Russian hemp, is now an article of import from India; and as from the nature and softness of the fibre, it may be applied to the manufacture of many coarse fabrics where flax is used, there is every reason to hope it may, like indigo, become a very extensive and valuable article of commerce: while it would enable the farmers of Great Britain, who cultivate hemp and flax, to spare much valuable land for corn, of which there is always a deficiency even in the most favourable years.

The termination of the war with several of the Mahratta princes, which commenced in 1802 and continued until 1805, produced a very considerable addition to the territories of the Company; but this war, when coupled with the preceding contests with the Sultan of Mysore in 1792 and 1795, and the various expeditions fitted out by the Company in India against the French, Spanish, Dutch, and Danish Settlements in the East, and also an expedition to Egypt, obliged the Company to borrow large sums of money at 8, 9, 10, and even 12 per cent, which in May 1809, had accumulated to £ 30,812,441 sterling, in this sum however is included arrears and allowances due in the civil and military departments, amounting to £ 1,914,699, which leaves an adjusted balance (according to the report of the select Committee of the House of Commons, Appendix No. 2, ordered to be printed, 21 June 1811) of £ 28,897,742.

The interest on this enormous debt, joined to the permanent increase of the military establishment, has not only deprived the Company of the annual sum allotted by Act of Parliament for their commercial investments, but has also absorbed the territorial revenue, as appears by the following abstract, which has been founded on the Parliamentary Reports in 1810, 1811, and 1812.

GENERAL ABSTRACT.

	Sterling.		Sterling.
Gross Revenues of Bengal	£ 11,782,055	Expences of the Bengal Establishment ..	£ 9,511,956
Idem Madras	5,376,881	Idem Madras Establishment	5,211,957
Idem Bombay	802,179	Idem Bombay do.	1,932,582
Idem Prince of Wales's Island	75,406	Idem Prince of Wales's Island ..	166,084
Idem Bencoolen	13,755	Idem Bencoolen	77,005
Idem St. Helena	1,202	Idem St. Helena	84,687
Total gross Revenue.....	£ 18,051,478		£ 16,984,271
Commercial Profits on an average on Ex- ports 1807 and 1808, and Imports 1809 and 1810	1,692,732	Establishment at Canton in China £ 43,066	
Dividend on Bank Annuities.....	36,226	Interest of Money due on Bonds, } Dividends to Proprietors, and } 2,055,641 other expences in England.. }	
			£ 2,098,707
		Miscellaneous expences, com- prising losses on outward and homeward voyages and shipwrecks.....	£ 105,665
		Sums written off the } Books	27,142
		Loss on exchange	89,248
		Freight and salvage } to owners.....	31,601
		Expences of keep- ing up dead stock } abroad	58,345
			312,001
		Taken on an average of years.	2,410,708
			£ 19,394,979
		Balance in favour of the Company	385,457
	£ 19,780,436		£ 19,780,436

It is however of importance to observe, that the territorial revenue has recently been considerably augmented, partly by an improved mode of the collection of the quit rents on the old territories, and partly by the revenues of the newly acquired provinces, and some improvements in the manner of conducting the business of salt and opium; but still more by the increased and generally increasing prosperity of the people living in the Company's territories, stimulated by the security they experience in the possession of the produce of their industry, and the encouragements held out for rendering the labour of the people as productive as possible.

The proprietors of about half the India debt had lent their money upon the condition of recovering their interest and also their capital at their own option, either in India or in England; and the consequence has been, that the bills drawn on the Company, (exclusive of those drawn from China) from the year 1801 to 1810 inclusive, have amounted to above ten millions sterling. This contingency, joined to the heavy losses sustained by the Company, by the loss of four outward bound

and ten homeward bound ships, in the years 1808 and 1809, has tended greatly to cripple their pecuniary resources; since the cargoes of their ships (including £ 60,729, the value of one of their own ships) amounted to £ 1,048,077, independently of the additional loss to the nation of the additional value of thirteen chartered ships, perhaps equal to nearly one million more. But this sinks to nothing when compared to the loss of the brave and valuable individuals who perished, or to the racking anxiety and severe sufferings of their families, relations, and friends.

To these hardships and calamities abroad were added the additional pressure on the finances of the Company, by the deficiency in the sales at home, arising from the convulsed state of Europe, and the interdiction of commercial intercourse with almost every part of the Continent of Europe where sales were found for East India goods, to which may be also added about £ 600,000 a year paid for demurrage, chiefly occasioned by a state of warfare.

Notwithstanding however these severe pressures upon the finances of the Company, both at home and abroad, the Company have hitherto kept up the usual standard of their exports; which has proved no small relief to the manufacturers, who have been accustomed to provide these supplies in the confidence that the demand would be uniform and steady.

In the year 1805, when the Company's Treasury was hardly pressed by the bills drawn from India, an application was made to Parliament for reimbursements of the sums expended by them on objects merely national and at the desire of His Majesty's government, the gross amount of which with the interest then due upon it was stated at £ 8,570,336, of which sum £ 3,000,000 had already been received. The claim being submitted to a Committee of the House of Commons, who recommended £ 1,000,000 to be paid in the mean time, (which was accordingly voted) and that, previous to a final adjustment the accounts should be investigated by accountants to be appointed by government and the Company.

In 1806, the further sum of £ 1,000,000 was voted by Parliament, and paid into the Company's Treasury.

In August 1807, an act passed (47 Geo. III. c. 41) authorising the Company to raise £ 2,000,000 upon bonds, which has been since raised at different times as the exigency of the case required; and such has been the credit of the Company in the contemplation of the public, that these bonds obtained a premium which still continues as often as transfers are made.

In 1808, the Company submitted to Parliament an exposition of their finances at home and abroad, explaining the leading circumstances which brought them into their actual situation of pecuniary embarrassment, which they imputed to the general measures of government, adopted for the purpose of annoying the enemies of the nation at large; and they represented that the number of the King's troops in India had been increased even after the termination of the Mahratta war, and thus the charge of their support had gone far beyond that which the Act of Parliament had required; that the vast accumulation of India debt was chiefly incurred in consequence of exportations conducted under the administration and controul exercised by His Majesty's government, and for national objects unconnected with the immediate interest of the Company; adding, that if Parliament should hesitate in voting the large sum due to the Company, they might be favoured with a loan only to the extent of a small part of their saleable property in London, the net balance of which was valued at £ 9,050,587 after paying all debts owing in England, including part of the India debt transferred to England by bills drawn on them, and without at all considering the vast commercial and other available property abroad, amounting then to £ 22,741,542 exclusive of property in China, and without reckoning any thing for their territorial possessions.

The Committee of the House of Commons, to whom the consideration of the Company's exposition was referred, reported, that of the sum of £ 2,460,000 claimed by the Company as a balance then due to them, they found £ 1,500,419 unquestionably owing, a doubtful balance being still left open for discussion. In June 1808, Parliament voted that £ 1,500,000 should be paid to the Company on account. In the following year, 1809, the bills drawn from India to discharge the capital of the optional debt amounted to an enormous sum, upon which, in April 1810, a new representation was made to Parliament, stating that bills from India to the amount of £ 2,236,188 would be payable in the course of the year, commencing the 1st March 1810, and that there would be a deficiency to the extent of £ 1,202,638, of the sums necessary to discharge the demands becoming due before the 1st of March 1811; shewing at the same time, that they possessed property in their warehouses and on the passage home of the value of £ 12,524,965, besides the value of the India House, their numerous warehouses, and their vessels and river craft employed at home amounting to £ 1,208,140, besides money owing them and not paid, and exclusive of their vast possessions in India.

On these grounds they afterwards petitioned Parliament for assistance by means of a temporary loan. In consequence of which the Act of the 50 Geo. III. cap. 114, which passed on the 20th of June 1810, authorised an issue of Exchequer Bills to the amount of £ 1,500,000 for the use of the Company, whereby they were enabled to discharge the demands upon them for the year 1810—11.

In 1811, Parliament being convinced of the beneficial effect of transferring a considerable part of the territorial debt to this country, and the necessity of having recourse to extraordinary means in order to meet the demands upon the Company, without increasing the capital stock, the Act of the 51 of Geo. III. c. 64, authorised the Company to make a further issue of Bonds not exceeding two millions, which, with the like sum already issued under the authority of the Act of the 47th of His Majesty, c. 41, was considered as equivalent to the sum which might have been obtained by the increase of capital which had been proposed. These Bonds have uniformly been sold at a premium.*

On the 10th of April 1812, the fourth report of the select Committee of the House of Commons was ordered to be printed. After an elaborate exposition of the Company's affairs, grounded on a minute examination of the various authentic documents laid before them, the Committee conclude in the following words.

“ After calling to the recollection of the House, that the observations hitherto made on these
 “ extensive and complicated transactions, and on the result of them, have applied exclusively to
 “ the interests of the East India Company. Your Committee will proceed to submit their view of
 “ them in their bearing on the general interests of the British Empire, which they trust is such as
 “ to lead to results much more gratifying than those which have been exhibited in reference to the
 “ separate affairs of the Company.

* The Author cannot here avoid acknowledging his obligation to that able and accurate Annalist, David M'Pherson, Esq. for the assistance he received from his excellent history of the European Commerce with India; to which the reader is referred for a mass of well arranged and well authenticated information on this interesting subject. A work of great labour and of almost incalculable research, by which he has not only enriched British literature, but rendered a most essential benefit to his country.

“ The Invoice value of goods and stores exported by the East India Company to India, China, and St. Helena, between 1791—2 and 1807—8, was £ 29,244,227, deducting the amount lost and captured, £ 28,791,967. There was exported in bullion in the same period £ 9,434,042. The total export from England, supposed to have arrived between 1792—3 and 1808—9 was therefore £ 38,226,009. The returns made by India and China in consignment of goods amounted to £ 50,754,400. The charges upon these goods, not added to the Invoices, may be stated at £ 2,916,279, which will carry the amount of the returns to the sum of £ 53,670,679, exclusive of £ 1,371,788 lost and captured. On which view it will appear, that England received in property from India and China, more than was sent, to the amount of £ 15,444,670: but the result arising out of the East India transactions alone is susceptible of a very considerable addition, if the means existed of examining with equal accuracy the exports and imports in the Privilege and Private Trade.

“ The amount of the exports it is not practicable at all to ascertain; neither can the value of the imports be shewn otherwise than by a general computation, governed by the proportion between the prime cost and sale amount of the Company's goods. The sale amount of Privilege and Private Trade and Neutral Property was £ 37,794,875, the prime cost of which may be calculated at £ 20,700,000. How far the purchase of these goods was made by exports from England, it is not possible to state; but no doubt exists of the purchase of them in this manner, having been very considerably below the amount of the prime cost now stated. Whatever the amount of the exports may have been, the difference between that and the sum of £ 20,700,000 is so much in addition to the result above shewn, which would be still further enhanced by the remittance of fortunes known to have been made in a variety of shapes from India to England, through extraneous and circuitous channels, to an amount which there is no possibility of tracing with accuracy.

“ If the means were attainable of shewing the result upon accurate calculations, the advantages derived to the British Empire would appear to a very large amount. The same difficulty, however, does not obstruct a statement of the accession accruing to the general circulation and benefits derived from it both in India and England. In India the industry of the subject has been encouraged and assisted by the employment of forty-six millions sterling, or on the annual average of £ 2,700,000 in the provision of investments for England.

“ The produce and manufactures of India purchased by this sum, combined with those from China sold in England, realized in sale amount to the extent of nearly one hundred and forty one millions sterling, or more than eight millions per annum. The general distribution and circulation arising out of this trade may be stated to have been,—

“ In the purchase of the Produce and Manufactures of England	-	£ 29,200,000
“ In the employment of British Shipping	- - - -	25,000,000
“ In payment of Bills of Exchange	- - - -	24,500,000
“ In the purchase of bullion, the import of which may be supposed to have been in payment for British Produce	- - - - }	9,400,000
“ In Disbursement for home Charges	- - - -	11,600,000
“ In Dividends to the Proprietors of Capital Stock, and Interest on Bonds	-	12,500,000

“ The sale of private goods and neutral property amounted nearly to £ 37,800,000, of this sum about four millions may be supposed to be included above. If an adjustment could be made of the remainder, amounting to £ 33,800,000, the distribution of it could be precisely defined.

“ It has appeared that the duties on imports collected through the Company, and realized at a very trivial expense to government, amounted to £ 39,300,000 ; and on exports to £ 660,000 ; together £ 39,960,000.

“ *The combination of these several sums, producing £ 185,960,000, shews, that on the average of the last 17 years £ 10,900,000 per annum has been diffused in various channels through the whole circulation of the British Empire. By this its manufactures have been supported, encouraged, and improved ; its shipping has been increased ; its revenues augmented ; its commerce extended ; its agriculture promoted ; and its power and resources invigorated and upheld.*”

In addition to the public testimony, thus given by the Committee of the House of Commons, as to the great benefits which have been conferred upon the nation by the territorial possessions and commerce of the East India Company, it may be fairly concluded, that with proper management these advantages may be said to be only a prelude to others of much greater magnitude and importance to the British Empire.

It has been already seen that the difficulties which this trading community of unexampled magnitude have had to encounter have been excessive. With pecuniary resources never at any time equal to the magnitude of their trade, and the protection of their establishments, these resources have been periodically crippled by the necessities of the state. The events which have been disclosed in the preceding brief view of the transactions of the Company are of a nature so new and extraordinary, that it is impossible to contemplate them without astonishment.

Two commercial companies commencing their career not much above a century ago with a capital of £ 3,200,000, all of which they were compelled to lend to government without leaving them a shilling to carry on their extensive business, involved in constant warfare and disputes with rival European powers and with the native princes, generating wars of a nature and extent unexampled in the history of the world, and subjecting them to an expence so enormous, as to render it almost beyond the reach of human efforts to overcome the difficulties they were doomed to encounter ; yet at the end of 110 years what has been the result ?—

From beyond the mouth of the Ganges to Cape Comorin, and from that southern extremity to the mouth of the Indus, the Company have the command of that immense extent of coast, except the trifling settlement of the Portuguese and the Poona Mahrattas, who are bound by treaty to admit no ship into their ports that does not carry English colours. The Nizam of the Deccan, whose territories are entirely inland, is engaged by treaties, and still more by his own interest to live in friendship with the Company's government. The Nabob of Oude, the sovereign of another inland country, may be considered as holding his dominions under the protection of the Company, as well as the Nabob of Arcot and other princes of inferior importance. The Mahrattas, whose power has been considerably reduced, are now in friendship with the Company, and even in alliance, with every prospect of a continuance of peace, if they prefer their own vital interest to the precarious acquisitions arising from predatory warfare.

Of the Oriental princes not so nearly connected with the Company as those above mentioned the Burman Emperor is the most powerful ; and he is disposed to cultivate their friendship and to promote a commercial intercourse ; and there are also treaties offensive and defensive between the Company and the Sovereign of Persia. Above all, the rivalship of foreign European powers in Hindostan may now be said to be totally annihilated. The French, Dutch, Portuguese, and Danes, may be said to be completely expelled from India. While we behold the British Company in the possession of territories yielding an annual gross revenue of upwards of £ 18,000,000 sterling, with an

army of 140,000 men commanded by above 3000 British officers*. Under these imposing circumstances, and protected by a powerful navy, it is not now probable that any of the Asiatic princes, or any hostile European power will disturb the tranquillity of the British possessions in India; while the policy of government, by strongly interdicting any accession of new territory from motives of ambition, will restrain the Indian government from all hostile or oppressive acts calculated to excite a disposition to war on the part of the native princes. Add to all this, the happy and improved condition of above 40,000,000 of natives, who now live under the mild and ameliorated government of the Company; the blessings they now enjoy compared with the tyranny and oppression of their former governments; the encouragement afforded them to acquire property by their industry, the perfect and absolute security of that property when once acquired, together with the safety and protection of themselves and property against predatory incursions; they will rejoice, as it is believed they do rejoice, in the happy change which has taken place in their condition, and hence a disposition to loyalty and subordination may be expected universally to prevail, which must by degrees render a much less military force necessary, while the increase of industry and prosperity will augment the revenues, and produce a favourable change with respect to the finances of the Company, which the pressure of so many wars rapidly succeeding each other tended to derange.

As there is however every reason to expect that an annual reduction of expence will be accompanied by an increase of revenue, a few years of peace and prosperity may be expected to reduce the present enormous debt within moderate compass.

It is impossible to contemplate this important subject without identifying the British government with the Company. It will be seen in the preceding details, that as often as a charter was renewed, or where instances of real or imaginary prosperity occurred in the Company's affairs that the state largely participated. To the members of the Company in their corporate capacity, the East India Trade can never be said to have been an object of any profit. The legislature assumed the right at all times from the earliest period of controlling their transactions, and of limiting their dividends, which have been often much under five per cent. according to the current price of stock, and for a considerable length of time their capitals invested have not yielded much more than five per cent. for money. And without a prospect (if we may judge from the past) of any material increase.

It is clear therefore to demonstration, that it is not from an expectation of profit that the individuals composing the East India Company have embarked six millions of money in this trade. Their object is patronage alone, to obtain a provision for their children and relations. They do not, and indeed cannot, from the nature of the system, trade upon the principles pursued by private merchants; nor can they at any time count upon a larger proportion of the profits than Parliament shall prescribe. In this view, the benefits, which are admitted to have been immense, are conferred upon the British community at large in common with the Company; with this difference only, that possessing a certain share of patronage, their relations may possess a larger proportion of the fortunes that are made. The territorial revenue, although it may be said to yield little or no surplus after all the charges upon it are paid, is notwithstanding a source of great profit to the nation in the fortunes acquired by individual British subjects in India, arising from this source, which are ultimately remitted to this country, and add yearly to the national property. The same may be said of the commerce of the Company, which, although not profitable to the adventurers, is most unquestionably of great benefit to the shipping and manufacturing interests. In fact, its benefits extend more or less to all classes of the community engaged in trade, commerce, shipping, manufactures, or agriculture.—India

* Vide Letter from the Chairman and Deputy Chairman of the East India Company, dated 13th of January, 1809.

may therefore be considered as a most important acquisition, the value of which cannot be sufficiently appreciated. It is one of the brightest jewels in the British Crown. To say that a joint stock company, whose capital amounts only to *six millions*, (or even twelve millions at the advanced price at which the stock has been generally sold) should be able to acquire territories which produce an annual gross revenue of upwards of £ 18,000,000 sterling, is to state one of the most extraordinary circumstances that ever occurred in the world. It is however to be attributed after all to the power and resources of the British nation, which in the whole progress of these acquisitions afforded not only the aid of great talents, but powerful navies and armies, without which the object could never have been accomplished. If the Company has been occasionally crippled with respect to advances made to government, the same government has at other times, and at all times, extended her fostering hand in order to keep up the Company when ready to sink under financial pressures, of which there have been many recent instances.

A general and comprehensive view of the affairs of the Company, founded on documents presented to Parliament, will be found in the Tables No. 14, A to E. annexed to this part of the work. These Tables are the result of great labour and research, and taken separately, each may be considered as a history of the subject of which it treats, while they may be said to exhibit a complete view of the Company's affairs brought into the narrowest compass that is possible, and hence a hope is entertained that they may prove useful in elucidating in a facile manner important facts highly interesting to the proprietors and the nation at large.

In order to form an adequate idea of the extent of the patronage, and the national benefits arising from the source which has been created through the medium of the East India Company's concerns of unexampled extent, it is only necessary to state, that the following number of British subjects are employed in different departments, all receiving certain benefits which the major part could never have enjoyed to one-fourth the extent had not a chartered Company existed.

Civil Service.	{	Persons either in the Service of the Company, or connected with and	}	2,146		
		employed in their affairs in England - - - - -				
		Persons in India employed in the Judicial, Clerical, Diplomatic,			}	1,056
		Commercial, and Revenue Departments, &c. - - - - -				
{	Seamen employed and reared in the Company's Service, in 115	}	25,000			
	ships, about - - - - -					
	=====			26,056		
Military and Naval Service.	{	British Military Officers in the Company's Service commanding	}	1,000		
		European Troops - - - - -				
		British Officers and Cadets in the Company's Service commanding	}	3,000		
		Native Troops - - - - -				
		British Non-Commissioned Officers and Soldiers in the Service	}	16,000		
		of the Company - - - - -				
=====			20,000			
Natives in the Service of the Company.	{	British Officers in the Company's Naval Department in India	}	113		
		Natives employed in various Departments in the Civil Service of			}	12,362
		the Company - - - - -				
		Natives employed in the Indian Armies - - - - -			}	140,000
Natives employed in the Naval Service, estimated at about -	800					
=====			153,162			
Total - -				201,477		

It may be fairly presumed from a consideration of the foregoing statement, that out of the 201,477 persons in the service of the Company, at least 6000 in the civil and military departments at home and abroad enjoy emoluments extending from £200 to £10,000 a year, exclusive of the Governor General whose annual income is twenty thousand. And if to this is added the annual profits of more than 4000 British free merchants, all in the train of making money, all which as well as the savings of those in the immediate service of the Company must ultimately center in Great Britain and Ireland. And hence, the great benefits are obvious which arise from the acquisitions in India, and the commerce of that country, while the resource it affords in giving liberal incomes to above 6000 individuals, all natives of Great Britain and Ireland, besides the means of subsistence to a great number in stations that are inferior, who but for this resource would find it difficult to procure employment.

It has already been stated, that the territorial revenues, collected annually by the servants of the Company, amount to the gross sum of £18,051,478, and that their profits on trade on an average of four years have amounted to £1,692,732, which with their dividends from the Bank, amounting to £36,226, make a total of £19,780,436. But these are not the only profits which arise from the possession of the East India territories, the surplus of which, through the medium of the Company and the free merchants, center ultimately in this country. It appears, that the average imports yearly into all parts of British India from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, amount to £11,943,447, and that the exports to all the different quarters of the world make a total of £11,674,454, both taken on an average of five years, thus leaving a balance against British India amounting to £268,993. Of this extensive commerce, the proportion which attaches to the Company in their trade between their own territories and England, amounts in imports into British India to £1,747,771, and in exports to £1,351,483. And the imports of private and privileged trade into British India amount to £970,031, and the exports from thence to Great Britain amount to £1,270,123. The imports into British India from foreign Europe amount to £564,384, and the exports to £442,697. The imports into British India from the United States of America have amounted to £908,362, and the exports to £846,445. The imports into British India from Asia and Africa, in what is called the country trade, amount to £7,752,899, and the exports to £7,763,706.

Such are the resources afforded by the East India trade and possessions,—in the beneficial employment of a number of well educated British subjects in Civil, Naval, and Military departments,—in the trade carried on in India by the free merchants licensed by the Company,—in the employment of 25,000 seamen in navigating the East India ships,—and in affording considerable emoluments to establishments supported from the Company's funds in England,—all which more or less tend to increase the resources of the state. And if to this shall be added the produce of the fortunes expended in Great Britain by a vast number of individuals, who have returned from India, and their heirs and representatives, during the last and the present century, together with the influx of the wealth acquired by persons returning every year for the purpose of enjoying their property in their native country; it will be found that the profits on the commerce carried on by the Company, which originally was the only object in view, constitutes but a very small proportion of the trade now carried on, or the wealth acquired in consequence of the British territorial possessions:—which proves, that while the Company have been long struggling with deranged finances and an enormous load of debt, arising from expensive, and in most instances, unavoidable wars, the parent state has been constantly deriving immediate pecuniary benefits, and hence an apparently solid foundation has been laid for a regular and progressive accession of wealth.

It appears on examining the parliamentary papers of the East India Company, that they very properly divide their effects into what they call *quick stock* or *floating property*, such as debts, balances of accounts, and merchandize in the train of being converted into money; and *dead stock*, or that species of property which, although in itself valuable, is neither productive as an available property, nor in the train of being converted into active capital, such as fortifications, ordnance, warlike instruments, houses, warehouses, &c.

The total Debts of the East India Company payable in England, including Bonds,	}	£ 13,886,431
Bills, Debts, and open Accounts, appear at this time from their own Public		
Documents to amount to - - - - -		

The total Debts of every description in India appear from the same Documents	}	32,227,862
to amount to - - - - -		

Total including floating Debt - - - - -	£ 46,114,293
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Against this Sum is to be placed the Debts and Assets of the	}	£ 5,369,420
Company in England - - - - -		

Also Goods unsold and Cash in the Treasury on the 1st March, 1812 -	5,795,535
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Also the Balance of the quick Stock in India, constituting available	}	13,786,610
Assets in India, according to an adjustment of Accounts on the		
30th April 1811 - - - - -		

Also Debts outstanding due to the Company in India, including	}	10,158,105
advances for investments in Salt and Opium - - - - -		

Also Cargoes from England, not arrived in India and China, at the	}	1,876,872
abovementioned date - - - - -		

£ 36,986,542

Dead Stock in England, or Property invested in	}	£ 1,208,020
Houses, Warehouses, Furniture, Ships, Sloops,		
and other Craft - - - - -		

Dead Stock in India, constituting Property invested	}	10,870,132
in Fortifications, Buildings, Plate, Furniture,		
Plantations, Farms, Stores, Sloops, Vessels, &c.		
including Fortifications and Buildings in Prince		
of Wales's Island - - - - -		12,078,152

Total Assets £ 49,064,694

Deduct Debts as above - - - - -	46,114,293
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Balance in favour of the Company - - - - -	£ 2,950,401
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On a presumption that the floating available property of the Company, amounting as above to £ 36,986,542, could be turned into money, and applied with convenience to the payment of the debt above mentioned of £ 46,114,293, the debt due would be reduced, as it may be virtually said to be reduced to £ 9,127,751; against which may be placed not only the dead or unproductive property, which cost in all £ 12,078,152, but also the annual amount of the territorial and other revenues, and profits on trade, making in the whole an aggregate of £ 19,780,436:—Out of which it may be reasonably expected that a considerable surplus will arise, now that warlike expeditions against European enemies are at an end, and the power of the native princes, who have hitherto been hostilely disposed, is either totally annihilated, or so much reduced, as to hold out the prospect of a long period of peace in British India; thereby affording an opportunity not only of reducing the immense Military Establishment, but also of abolishing much of the enormous expence which

attaches to the Civil Institutions. In so far as these expences can be diminished, in the same proportion will the surplus revenue be augmented. And in the operation of this more economical system, a larger proportion of the annual profits of the labour of the people of India must center in the parent state than can be expected from the fortunes of individuals in the Company's Service, inasmuch as a considerable part of the incomes of these individuals must be expended in India. A series of years of uninterrupted peace will afford time to correct abuses, and to introduce economy and regularity into every part of this system; the result of which must be, not only a considerable increase of revenue, but also a great diminution of the present unexampled expence both at home and abroad.

In considering the rise, progress, and present state of the East India Company's affairs, it is impossible not to draw the following conclusions.

- 1st. That the East India commerce as it is now carried on, amalgamated with the territorial revenues, can never be an object of profit to the Stockholders, although it may be, and has certainly been, of great advantage to the nation at large.
- 2d. That the territorial revenues, considering the terms of the last charter, cannot be expected ever to produce any benefit to the Company, either as a corporation or individuals, as Government will feel itself, as heretofore, intitled at all times to whatever surplus may arise out of these revenues, as an indemnification for the naval equipments sent out for the general protection of the trade and commerce in the Oriental seas, and the territories in India which have at different periods been acquired by the Company,—and which could never have been either acquired or afterwards retained, but for the interference, assistance, and protection of his Majesty's Government.
- 3d. That the trade to British India in British manufactures is not (according to the evidence which has been adduced) susceptible of extension much beyond the present exports by the Company, and private and foreign traders, and that those who speculate under an expectation of a great increase in the consumption of British manufactures are likely to be deceived, although the enterprize arising from individual exertions may after a time produce a favourable change. An increase of the usual exports from India, however, may be practicable almost to any extent for which a sale can be found in Europe; but payment (at least for a time) must be made chiefly in bullion.
- 4th. That it however appears desirable, that such part of the trade as has been carried on by foreigners to British India should, if possible, be confined to British subjects with free liberty to import at the cheapest rate of freight, and with power to convey the prohibited and other articles, for which a sale cannot be found at home, to such foreign European and American markets as may be open to them, and this with the least possible delay, after the arrival of the cargoes.—And in this manner to confine to Great Britain and to British subjects the monopoly of the trade between British India and Europe, upon nearly the same principle as has been established with respect to the West India and other Colonies. But under these circumstances it is probable that the same quantity of Bullion may be found which was exported by the Americans and foreigners, which amounted in six years, from 1802—3 to 1807—8, to no less a sum than £ 6,594,775, while the merchandize exported amounted only to £ 1,740,614, of which £ 1,072,960 went from foreign Europe, and only £ 667,654 in goods from America.
- 5th. That in order to carry on trade with British India to advantage, the goods imported into Great Britain should not only be imported at the lowest rate of freight and other charges which is practicable; but every facility should be afforded, whereby the articles so imported may be sold or exported to the different markets in Europe with the least possible delay. The system of the East India Company does not appear to admit of those facilities in this respect, which are necessary to give quick circulation to trade. Much time elapses before the goods can be

brought to sale. The privileged and private traders often suffer by these delays in consequence of the fall of markets. They cease to be free agents with respect to the disposal of their merchandize: and such are said to be the delays which occur in the dispatch of the ships, the voyage home, and the time lost by depositing the goods in the warehouses many months before the system of the Company admits of their being offered to sale, that vessels from the United States have been known to make a voyage to America, and from thence to Europe with the chief part of their Indian cargoes, and to repeat these voyages a second time before the same articles, imported by the East India Company, were brought to sale in London.

6th. That it appears the productions of British India, sold at the Company's sales in 1809-10, consisted of the following articles, and produced the sums hereinafter stated.

	Company's Goods.	Private Trade Goods.	Neutral and Prize Goods.
Piece goods from Bengal, Coast of Coromandel, and Surat	£ 1,103,638	£ 77,564	£ 71
Raw Silk	555,531	103,213	627
Organzine Silk	0,000	000,000	000
Pepper	50,476	4,762	2,095
Saltpetre	223,794	156	2,316
Spices	153,824	20,613	217,125
Drugs, Sugar, and Indigo	357,787	1,378,297	84,718
Coffee	0,000	00,000	00,000
Cotton	0,000	00,000	00,000
Sunn Hemp	0,000	00,000	00,000
	£ 2,445,050	£ 1,584,605	£ 306,952

And hence it should seem, that the Company's sales comprise about 56-100ths, the private British trade about 37-100ths, and the neutral and prize goods about 7-100ths of the aggregate sales, amounting to £ 4,336,607.

7th. That it appears, the productions of China, sold at the Company's sales in 1809-10, consisted of the following articles, and produced the sums hereinafter stated.

	Company.	Private Trade.	Neutral and Prize Goods.
Teas	£ 3,410,753	£ 314,700	£ 11,899
China Wrought Silk	0,000,000	000,000	00,000
China Ware	0,000,000	000,000	00,000
Nankeens	133,472	16,814	12,803
	£ 3,544,225	£ 331,514	£ 24,702

And hence it appears, that the Company's trade comprizes about 90-100ths, the private British trade about 9-100ths, and the neutral and prize goods less than 1-100th of the aggregate sales, amounting to £ 3,906,441.

8th. That it appears from papers presented to the House of Commons, and ordered to be printed on the 12th of April 1812, that on an average of six years, from 1802-3 to 1807-8 inclusive, there was exported into and imported from British India, *by the Company, by the private and privileged traders, and by foreign states*, as follows:—

	Bullion.	Merchandise and Stores.	Total.	In goods only.
By the Company exported	£ 823,188	£ 924,583	£ 1,747,771	and imported £ 1,351,483
By the Company's Ship Officers Idem.	29,959	440,000	469,959	Idem. 323,167
By Private Traders Idem.	194,576	305,496	500,072	Idem. 946,956
By the Americans Idem.	757,277	111,275	868,552	Idem. 800,547
By Foreign Europeans Idem.	341,849	178,826	520,675	Idem. 406,292
Total average of Exports and Imports	£ 2,146,849	£ 1,960,180	£ 4,107,029	£ 3,828,445

Of this trade England participated to the extent of 68-100ths, or upwards of 5-8th parts } according to
 America Idem. 21-100ths, or less than 2-8th parts } the statement made
 Foreign Europe Idem. 11-100ths, or less than 1-8th part } up at the India House.

9th. That within the period above mentioned, namely, six years from 1802-3, to 1807-8 inclusive, Foreign nations participated in the trade of British India to the following extent, viz.

	<i>Bullion.</i>	<i>Goods.</i>	<i>Total.</i>	
The Americans . . . exported	£ 4,543,662	£ 667,654	£ 5,211,316	and imported in goods only from India £ 4,803,283
The Foreign Europeans Idem. .	2,051,093	1,072,960	3,124,053	and imported in goods from India . 2,437,752
	<u>£ 6,594,755</u>	<u>£ 1,740,614</u>	<u>£ 8,335,369</u>	<u>£ 7,241,035</u>

10th. That the British Trade within the same period to and from British India stood thus:—

	<i>Bullion.</i>	<i>Goods and Stores.</i>	<i>Total.</i>	
The Company . . . exported	£ 4,939,128	£ 5,547,501	£ 10,486,629	and they imported in goods only £ 8,108,897
The Company's Ship Officers Idem.	179,756	2,640,000	2,819,756	and they imported in goods only 1,939,000
The Private Traders . . Idem.	1,167,460	1,832,980	3,000,440	and they imported 5,681,740
	<u>£ 6,286,344</u>	<u>£ 10,020,481</u>	<u>£ 16,306,825</u>	<u>£ 15,729,637</u>

Thus giving to the Company 64-100th parts of the Exports, and of the Imports 52-100th parts.

And to the Ship Officers 17-100th parts of the Exports, and of the Imports 12-100th parts.

And to the Private Merchants 19-100th parts of the Exports, and of the Imports 36-100th parts.

Thus giving to the Private Traders nearly one-third of the Exports, and of the Imports, approaching to one-half.

11th. That these authentic documents warrant a conclusion that within the period before mentioned, namely, for six years from 1802-3 to 1807-8, taking the aggregate of the whole exportations and importations to and from British India, the proportion of the whole trade, compassed by the Company when the stores for the troops are deducted, does not much exceed one-third part of the trade carried on; although, including the supplies to the Army, Navy, &c, it appears to amount to somewhat more.

12th. That it appears, that the bullion exported by the Americans and Foreign Europeans, during the above six years, amounted to £ 6,594,755, and that the Company and the two classes of British Traders exported £ 6,286,344 within the same period. And hence a question arises, whether such Foreign Trade may not be considered as in some degree beneficial to India, inasmuch as the raw materials and manufactured goods appear to have been chiefly paid for in the precious metals.

13th. That the funds of the Company together with their territorial revenues and the profits upon their trade with India and China, appear to be nearly equal to their annual expenditure, including the 10 per cent. annual dividends on stock, and the interest of their bonded debts, and their debts in India.

14th. That the embarrassments, which the Company have experienced, appear to have arisen chiefly from the transfer of immense sums of the India debt to England, without funds corresponding to the pressure.

15th. That from a general view of the affairs of the Company, and of the economical measures adopted in the collection of the revenue, and in the reduction of the expences, coupled with the probable increase of the territorial revenues, by the encouragement held out for the purpose of increasing the productive labour of the immense population, there are reasonable grounds to expect, that if British India is not visited by expensive wars, thereby rendering it practicable to reduce the immense and extensive military establishments, and still more to economize the civil departments, that the heavy debt incurred by the wars of the preceding twelve years will gradually diminish, so as to leave a large surplus revenue to the Company and to the State.

The resources are certainly not only immense; but they are in the train of progressively increasing, and nothing but an erroneous system of management, and new and expensive wars can prevent these possessions from becoming a greater source of riches than ever to the parent state.

The annexed statements*, the result of great labour, have been made up from the various documents laid before Parliament in 1810, 1811, and 1812, and they are so arranged as to convey to the mind of the reader a distinct view of the present state of the affairs of the Company, and of their property and resources at the present period.

- * No. 14,
Five Tables.
- A. Population and Company's Servants.
 - B. Exports and Imports to and from India, and the State of the Trade.
 - C. General View of the Company's Revenues and Expences in India.
 - D. General Statement of the Company's Assets, viz. Quick Stock and Dead Stock, and Debts.
 - E. General View of the Company's Territorial Possessions and Commercial Establishments at home and abroad.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE POPULATION OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY'S TERRITORIAL POSSESSIONS,

INCLUDING THEIR COMMERCIAL ESTABLISHMENTS;

Shewing the Number of Inhabitants, Europeans and Natives, under the Dominion of the East India Company :—Distinguishing the Number of Persons in their Service and otherwise :—From Authentic Documents, and the best Authorities. (1812.)

POPULATION. (A)

	EUROPEANS.			NATIVES.			TOTAL.
	Estimated Number of Persons in the Company's Service, including the King's Troops.	Estimated Number of Persons not in the Company's Service.	Total Europeans.	Estimated Number of Persons in the Company's Service.	Estimated Number of Persons not in the Company's Service.	Total Natives.	
Bengal	18,552	1,535	20,087	65,122	29,000,000	29,065,122	29,085,209
Madras	15,417	476	15,893	46,429	10,800,000	10,846,429	10,862,322
Bombay	6,576	453	7,029	19,644	60,000	79,644	86,673
Fort Marlborough	136	57	193	370		370	563
Prince of Wales's Island	119	56	175	627	18,000	18,627	18,802
Canton	23		23				23
St. Helena	346	1,500	1,846	970	2,000	2,970	4,816
Totals	41,169	4,077	45,246	133,162	39,880,000	40,013,162	40,058,408

PERSONS IN THE EAST INDIA COMPANY'S SERVICE.

ESTABLISHMENTS :—	CIVIL DEPARTMENT.			MILITARY DEPARTMENT. (B)			MARINE IN INDIA.			SHIPPING. (C)	TOTAL.
	Estimated Number of Europeans.	Estimated Number of Natives.	Total Persons.	Estimated Number of Europeans, including the King's Troops.	Estimated Number of Natives.	Total Persons.	Estimated Number of Europeans.	Estimated Number of Natives.	Total Persons.	Estimated Number of Seamen, including Lascars.	
European or Home Establishment	† 2146		2,146							25,000	27,146
Bengal	500	10,968	11,468	10,052	64,154	74,206					85,674
Madras	267	974	1,241	7,150	55,455	62,605					63,846
Bombay	187	18	205	2,276	18,826	21,102	113	800	913		22,220
Fort Marlborough	12		12	124	370	494					506
Prince of Wales's Island	45	402	447	74	225	299					746
Canton	23		23								23
St. Helena	22		22	324	970	1,294					1,316
Totals	3,202	12,362	15,564	20,000	140,000	160,000	113	800	913	25,000	201,477

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

AGGREGATE POPULATION UNDER THE DOMINION OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.	POPULATION.		PERSONS IN THE EAST INDIA COMPANY'S SERVICE.			
	Europeans, viz.	Natives, viz.	Civil Department	Military Department, viz.	Europeans.	Total Persons.
	In the Company's Service . 41,169	In the Company's Service . 133,162		21*Regiments of Cavalry	3,202	15,564
	Not in the Company's Idem . 4,077	Not in Idem . . Idem 39,880,000		84*Regiments of Infantry		
	Total 45,246	Total 40,013,162		5 Battalions of Artillery	20,000	160,000
				3 Corps of Engineers		
				1 Marine Battalion, &c. &c.	113	913
				Marine in India		
				European Shipping, viz.	25,000	25,000
				Seamen, including Lascars, about		
				Totals	48,315	201,477

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

- (A) Some take the East India Company's Settlements to contain 50,000,000 Inhabitants, others 60, and some as high as 70,000,000. As the Marquis Wellesley, from his long experience in India, and from the opportunities he had to be the best informed, should seem to be well entitled to credit, we have adopted the number 40,000,000, stated in his Speech on the East India Question in the House of Lords, on the 9th of April, 1813. And in the distribution of this number amongst their various settlements, we have availed ourselves of information from Gentlemen who possess very extensive local knowledge, and have long resided on the spot.
- (B) It appears from papers relating to the East India Company's Charter, ordered by the House of Commons to be printed the 14th April, 1812, that the Native Army in India consists of 140,000 Men, and is commanded by more than 3000 European Officers; to which is to be added the King's Troops, estimated at least at 17,000.—Total, 160,000.
- (C) According to the official Accounts, the Company's European Shipping are navigated by more than 12,000 Men annually; it may therefore be fairly presumed that as the Country Trade is very considerable, there cannot be less than 25,000 Seamen, including Lascars, in their Service.

† Exclusive of 192 Students and Cadets for the Establishments abroad.

* Including the King's Troops in the East India Company's Service, viz. 5 Regiments of Dragoons, and 19 Battalions of Foot.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE EXPORTS AND IMPORTS BETWEEN THE EAST INDIA COMPANY'S SETTLEMENTS AND ALL PARTS;

Being an Average of Five Years, from 1802 to 1806 inclusive.—From Authentic Documents, printed by Order of the House of Commons in 1812.

EXPORTS.

FROM—	TO GREAT BRITAIN.				TO FOREIGN EUROPE.	TO AMERICA.	TO DIFFERENT PARTS OF BRITISH ASIA †.	TO ARABIAN GULPH, PERSIAN GULPH, CHINA *, AND OTHER PARTS OF FOREIGN ASIA, AFRICA, &c. †.	TOTAL.
	East India Company.	British Private Traders, or Privilege Trade.	Commanders and Officers of the Company's Ships or Private Trade.	Total.					
INDIA; viz.									
Merchandize . . .	£ 1,351,483	£ 946,956	£ 323,167	£ 2,621,606	£ 442,539	£ 842,590	£ 3,213,256	£ 3,957,834	£ 11,077,825
Bullion					158	3,855	444,059	148,557	596,629
	£ 1,351,483	£ 946,956	£ 323,167	£ 2,621,606	£ 442,697	£ 846,445	£ 3,657,315	£ 4,106,391	£ 11,674,454
CHINA	£ 1,691,223		£ 265,224	£ 1,956,447					£ 1,956,447
Totals £	3,042,706	946,956	588,391	4,578,053	442,697	846,445	3,657,315	4,106,391	13,630,901

IMPORTS.

INTO—	FROM GREAT BRITAIN.				FROM FOREIGN EUROPE.	FROM AMERICA.	FROM DIFFERENT PARTS OF BRITISH ASIA †.	FROM ARABIAN GULPH, PERSIAN GULPH, CHINA *, AND OTHER PARTS OF FOREIGN ASIA, AFRICA, &c. †.	TOTAL.
	East India Company.	British Private Traders, or Privilege Trade.	Commanders and Officers of the Company's Ships, or Private Trade.	Total.					
INDIA; viz.									
Merchandize and Stores . . .	£ 924,583	£ 305,496	£ 440,000	£ 1,670,079	£ 179,799	£ 123,424	£ 3,750,298	£ 1,908,336	£ 7,631,936
Bullion	823,188	194,576	29,959	1,047,723	384,585	784,938	316,192	1,778,073	4,311,511
	£ 1,747,771	£ 500,072	£ 469,959	£ 2,717,802	£ 564,384	£ 908,362	£ 4,066,490	£ 3,686,409	£ 11,943,447
CHINA; viz.									
Merchandize and Stores . . . } 938,084									
Bullion } 167,414									
	£ 1,105,498			£ 1,105,498					£ 1,105,498
Totals £	2,853,269	500,072	469,959	3,823,300	564,384	908,362	4,066,490	3,686,409	13,048,945

AGGREGATE.

Exports . . £ 13,630,901
Imports . . £ 13,048,945

SUMMARY RECAPITULATION.

EXPORTS.

From India—	£
To Great Britain	2,621,606
Idem Foreign Europe	442,697
Idem America	846,445
Idem Different Parts of British Asia	3,657,315
Idem Arabian Gulph, Persian Gulph, China *, and other Parts of Foreign Asia, Africa, &c.	4,106,391
	£ 11,674,454
From China—	
To Great Britain	1,956,447
Total	£ 13,630,901

IMPORTS.

Into India—	
From Great Britain	2,717,802
Idem Foreign Europe	564,384
Idem America	908,362
Idem Different Parts of British Asia	4,066,490
Idem Arabian Gulph, Persian Gulph, China *, and other Parts of Foreign Asia, Africa, &c.	3,686,409
	£ 11,943,447
Into China—	
From Great Britain	1,105,498
Total	£ 13,048,945

† By Individuals, commonly called the Country Trade, exclusive of the East India Company's Commerce.

* The Country Trade with China is as follows:—Exports £ 1,649,455. Imports £ 1,341,173.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE TERRITORIAL POSSESSIONS AND COMMERCIAL ESTABLISHMENTS OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY;

Shewing the *Population* of the East India Company's Territorial Possessions, their *Army, Marine, Commercial Establishments, Shipping, Exports and Imports, Commercial Profits, Duties* paid to Government, *Capital Stock, Revenues, Income and Expenditure, Assets and Debts, Dividends* on Stock and *Annual Interest* on Bonds, &c. From various Authentic Documents. (1812)

POPULATION:—(See Table No. 14. A.)

Europeans	45,246
Natives	40,013,162
Total	40,058,408

ARMY:—(See Table No. 14. A.)

King's Troops	20,000
Native Army	140,000
Total	160,000

MARINE:—

18 Vessels.
214 Guns.
913 Men.

COMMERCIAL ESTABLISHMENTS:—(See Table No. 14. A.)

Europeans	3,202
Natives	12,362
Total	15,564

SHIPPING:—(A.)

115 Vessels.
100,000 Tons.
25,000 Seamen, including Lascars.

EXPORTS:—(See Table No. 14. B.)

Annual average.	
British Europe, viz.	
East India Company	£ 3,042,706
Privilege Trade	946,956
Private Trade	588,391
	<u>£ 4,578,053</u>
Foreign Europe	442,697
America	846,445
Country Trade†	7,763,706
Total	£ 13,630,901

IMPORTS:—(See Table No. 14. B.)

Annual average.	
British Europe, viz.	
East India Company	£ 2,853,269
Privilege Trade	500,072
Private Trade	469,959
	<u>£ 3,823,300</u>
Foreign Europe	564,384
America	908,362
Country Trade†	7,752,899
Total	£ 13,048,945

COMMERCIAL PROFITS:—(B.)

On the Company's Trade with China, annually	£ 1,412,800
Idem Idem India, . Idem	279,932
Total	£ 1,692,732

DUTIES PAID TO GOVERNMENT:—(C.)

Customs and Excise, in the year ended Jan. 1811, £4,213,425

CAPITAL STOCK. £ 6,000,000.

REVENUES:—(See Tables No. 14. C.)

Gross Amount, being an average of the years	
1809-10, and 1810-11	£ 18,051,478
Expences . . . Idem . . . Idem . . . Idem	16,984,271
Net Revenues	£ 1,067,207

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE:—(See page 38.)

Income	£ 19,780,436
Expenditure	19,394,979
Surplus in favor of the East India Company	£ 385,457

ASSETS AND DEBTS:—(See Table No. 14. D.)

Assets, viz. Quick Stock* and Dead Stock§	£ 49,064,694
Debts	46,114,293
Balance in favor of the East India Company	£ 2,950,401

DIVIDENDS ON STOCK AND INTEREST ON BONDS, &c. viz.

Interest on Bonds, Loans, and Deposits in India,	
on the 30th of April, 1811	£ 1,691,363
Dividends on Stock, and Interest on Bonds, &c.	
in England, on the 1st of March, 1812	872,033
Total	£ 2,563,396

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

(A) It appears from an authentic document, that 50 East India ships admeasuring 43,706 tons, of the season 1811-12, sailed from England in the year 1812; and assuming that there are about the same number abroad, together with the Shipping employed in the Country Trade, there cannot be less than 115 of every description in the Company's Service, taken at an average, 100,000 tons. The Shipping belonging to the British Settlements in India are as follows:—

	Vessels.	Tons.
Calcutta	92	13,939
Bombay	29	17,737
Total	121	49,419

Of these the majority are employed by free Merchants in the Country Trade.

(B) The Commercial Profits are taken on an Average of the two latest years; viz. on Exports 1808-9 and 1809-10, and Imports 1807-8 and 1808-9, according to Numbers 25 and 36 of Appendix to IVth Report from the Select Committee on the Affairs of the East India Company.

(C) The Duties of Customs and Excise are stated as follows, in page 23 of Papers relating to the East India Company's Charter, &c. ordered by the House of Commons to be printed, the 14th of April 1812:—

	£
Customs on Tea	219,322
Idem, other Goods	498,901
Export Duty	17,653
Tonnage Duty	23,719
Total Customs	£ 759,595
Idem Excise	3,453,830
Total	£ 4,213,425

† The Commercial Interchange carried on between the East India Company's Settlements and other Parts of India and China, is usually called the Country Trade.

* Cash, Bills receivable, Goods, Salt, Opium, Rum, Grain, Cattle, Bonds and Debts of every description, &c.

§ Buildings, Fortifications, Plate, Household Furniture, Plantations, Farms, Vessels, Stores, &c.

TABLE No. 11. continued.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE TERRITORIAL POSSESSIONS AND COMMERCIAL ESTABLISHMENTS OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.

Showing the Location of the East India Company's Possessions, and the Nature of the Trade carried on at each of them, as far as it is known, from the Reports of the Directors, and from other sources, in the year 1810.

Territorial Possessions.		Commercial Establishments.	
Bengal.		Bengal.	
Calcutta.		Calcutta.	
Chittagong.		Chittagong.	
Dacca.		Dacca.	
Rangoon.		Rangoon.	
Sylhet.		Sylhet.	
Tribeni.		Tribeni.	
Moultaun.		Moultaun.	
Barrackpore.		Barrackpore.	
Burdwan.		Burdwan.	
Hooghly.		Hooghly.	
Medinipur.		Medinipur.	
Nagpore.		Nagpore.	
Pondicherry.		Pondicherry.	
Madras.		Madras.	
Carnatic.		Carnatic.	
Mysore.		Mysore.	
Tamil Nadu.		Tamil Nadu.	
Malabar.		Malabar.	
Goa.		Goa.	
Daman.		Daman.	
Diu.		Diu.	
Mauritius.		Mauritius.	
Rodrigues.		Rodrigues.	
Seychelles.		Seychelles.	
Nagasaki.		Nagasaki.	
Batavia.		Batavia.	
Sourabaya.		Sourabaya.	
Semarang.		Semarang.	
Amboyna.		Amboyna.	
Macassar.		Macassar.	
Samarang.		Samarang.	
Sumbawa.		Sumbawa.	
Ternate.		Ternate.	
Tidore.		Tidore.	
Makassar.		Makassar.	
Celebes.		Celebes.	
Sulawesi.		Sulawesi.	
Sumatra.		Sumatra.	
Java.		Java.	
Borneo.		Borneo.	
Siam.		Siam.	
Cochin.		Cochin.	
Calicut.		Calicut.	
Mysore.		Mysore.	
Tamil Nadu.		Tamil Nadu.	
Malabar.		Malabar.	
Goa.		Goa.	
Daman.		Daman.	
Diu.		Diu.	
Mauritius.		Mauritius.	
Rodrigues.		Rodrigues.	
Seychelles.		Seychelles.	
Nagasaki.		Nagasaki.	
Batavia.		Batavia.	
Sourabaya.		Sourabaya.	
Semarang.		Semarang.	
Amboyna.		Amboyna.	
Macassar.		Macassar.	
Samarang.		Samarang.	
Sumbawa.		Sumbawa.	
Ternate.		Ternate.	
Tidore.		Tidore.	
Makassar.		Makassar.	
Celebes.		Celebes.	
Sulawesi.		Sulawesi.	
Sumatra.		Sumatra.	
Java.		Java.	
Borneo.		Borneo.	
Siam.		Siam.	
Cochin.		Cochin.	
Calicut.		Calicut.	
Mysore.		Mysore.	
Tamil Nadu.		Tamil Nadu.	
Malabar.		Malabar.	
Goa.		Goa.	
Daman.		Daman.	
Diu.		Diu.	
Mauritius.		Mauritius.	
Rodrigues.		Rodrigues.	
Seychelles.		Seychelles.	
Nagasaki.		Nagasaki.	
Batavia.		Batavia.	
Sourabaya.		Sourabaya.	
Semarang.		Semarang.	
Amboyna.		Amboyna.	
Macassar.		Macassar.	
Samarang.		Samarang.	
Sumbawa.		Sumbawa.	
Ternate.		Ternate.	
Tidore.		Tidore.	
Makassar.		Makassar.	
Celebes.		Celebes.	
Sulawesi.		Sulawesi.	
Sumatra.		Sumatra.	
Java.		Java.	
Borneo.		Borneo.	
Siam.		Siam.	
Cochin.		Cochin.	
Calicut.		Calicut.	
Mysore.		Mysore.	
Tamil Nadu.		Tamil Nadu.	
Malabar.		Malabar.	
Goa.		Goa.	
Daman.		Daman.	
Diu.		Diu.	
Mauritius.		Mauritius.	
Rodrigues.		Rodrigues.	
Seychelles.		Seychelles.	
Nagasaki.		Nagasaki.	
Batavia.		Batavia.	
Sourabaya.		Sourabaya.	
Semarang.		Semarang.	
Amboyna.		Amboyna.	
Macassar.		Macassar.	
Samarang.		Samarang.	
Sumbawa.		Sumbawa.	
Ternate.		Ternate.	
Tidore.		Tidore.	
Makassar.		Makassar.	
Celebes.		Celebes.	
Sulawesi.		Sulawesi.	
Sumatra.		Sumatra.	
Java.		Java.	
Borneo.		Borneo.	
Siam.		Siam.	
Cochin.		Cochin.	
Calicut.		Calicut.	
Mysore.		Mysore.	
Tamil Nadu.		Tamil Nadu.	
Malabar.		Malabar.	
Goa.		Goa.	
Daman.		Daman.	
Diu.		Diu.	
Mauritius.		Mauritius.	
Rodrigues.		Rodrigues.	
Seychelles.		Seychelles.	
Nagasaki.		Nagasaki.	
Batavia.		Batavia.	
Sourabaya.		Sourabaya.	
Semarang.		Semarang.	
Amboyna.		Amboyna.	
Macassar.		Macassar.	
Samarang.		Samarang.	
Sumbawa.		Sumbawa.	
Ternate.		Ternate.	
Tidore.		Tidore.	
Makassar.		Makassar.	
Celebes.		Celebes.	
Sulawesi.		Sulawesi.	
Sumatra.		Sumatra.	
Java.		Java.	
Borneo.		Borneo.	
Siam.		Siam.	
Cochin.		Cochin.	
Calicut.		Calicut.	
Mysore.		Mysore.	
Tamil Nadu.		Tamil Nadu.	
Malabar.		Malabar.	
Goa.		Goa.	
Daman.		Daman.	
Diu.		Diu.	
Mauritius.		Mauritius.	
Rodrigues.		Rodrigues.	
Seychelles.		Seychelles.	
Nagasaki.		Nagasaki.	
Batavia.		Batavia.	
Sourabaya.		Sourabaya.	
Semarang.		Semarang.	
Amboyna.		Amboyna.	
Macassar.		Macassar.	
Samarang.		Samarang.	
Sumbawa.		Sumbawa.	
Ternate.		Ternate.	
Tidore.		Tidore.	
Makassar.		Makassar.	
Celebes.		Celebes.	
Sulawesi.		Sulawesi.	
Sumatra.		Sumatra.	
Java.		Java.	
Borneo.		Borneo.	
Siam.		Siam.	
Cochin.		Cochin.	
Calicut.		Calicut.	
Mysore.		Mysore.	
Tamil Nadu.		Tamil Nadu.	
Malabar.		Malabar.	
Goa.		Goa.	
Daman.		Daman.	
Diu.		Diu.	
Mauritius.		Mauritius.	
Rodrigues.		Rodrigues.	
Seychelles.		Seychelles.	
Nagasaki.		Nagasaki.	
Batavia.		Batavia.	
Sourabaya.		Sourabaya.	
Semarang.		Semarang.	
Amboyna.		Amboyna.	
Macassar.		Macassar.	
Samarang.		Samarang.	
Sumbawa.		Sumbawa.	
Ternate.		Ternate.	
Tidore.		Tidore.	
Makassar.		Makassar.	
Celebes.		Celebes.	
Sulawesi.		Sulawesi.	
Sumatra.		Sumatra.	
Java.		Java.	
Borneo.		Borneo.	
Siam.		Siam.	
Cochin.		Cochin.	
Calicut.		Calicut.	
Mysore.		Mysore.	
Tamil Nadu.		Tamil Nadu.	
Malabar.		Malabar.	
Goa.		Goa.	
Daman.		Daman.	
Diu.		Diu.	
Mauritius.		Mauritius.	
Rodrigues.		Rodrigues.	
Seychelles.		Seychelles.	
Nagasaki.		Nagasaki.	
Batavia.		Batavia.	
Sourabaya.		Sourabaya.	
Semarang.		Semarang.	
Amboyna.		Amboyna.	
Macassar.		Macassar.	
Samarang.		Samarang.	
Sumbawa.		Sumbawa.	
Ternate.		Ternate.	
Tidore.		Tidore.	
Makassar.		Makassar.	
Celebes.		Celebes.	
Sulawesi.		Sulawesi.	
Sumatra.		Sumatra.	
Java.		Java.	
Borneo.		Borneo.	
Siam.		Siam.	
Cochin.		Cochin.	
Calicut.		Calicut.	
Mysore.		Mysore.	
Tamil Nadu.		Tamil Nadu.	
Malabar.		Malabar.	
Goa.		Goa.	
Daman.		Daman.	
Diu.		Diu.	
Mauritius.		Mauritius.	
Rodrigues.		Rodrigues.	
Seychelles.		Seychelles.	
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POSTSCRIPT.

SINCE the details relative to the British Possessions in India were written in 1812, a new æra has commenced in the affairs of the East India Company, and new lights have been thrown upon the oriental trade arising from the discussion which preceded the renewal of the Charter. On referring to the annexed Abstract of the Act of the 53 Geo. III. Cap. 155, it will be seen that the trade to British India is to be opened to the enterprise of individuals, under certain restrictions and regulations.

By this Act the territorial acquisitions in India, with the late acquisitions on the Continent of Asia, or in any Island north of the Equator, are to remain in the Government of the East India Company for 20 years, from the 10th of April 1814. The Company have also the exclusive monopoly of the trade to and from China for the like term of years. Private traders, subjects of His Majesty, in the United Kingdom, may export goods to any port or place within the limits of the Company's Charter, provided the return cargoes are sent to such ports only in Great Britain and Ireland as shall be specified by an order of His Majesty in Council in Great Britain, and by the Lord Lieutenant and Council in Ireland.

This Act contains a great variety of regulations and restrictions, which will be better explained by a reference to the Abstract. Among others, by the 64th Section, the East India Directors are hereafter required to keep separate and distinct accounts of their territorial, political, and commercial affairs, which have been heretofore so amalgamated as to render it impossible, with any degree of accuracy, to ascertain the profit or loss on their trade.

In the same year (namely, in December 1813) the Acts of the 54th of Geo. III. Cap. 34, 35, and 36, (Abstracts of which are also annexed to this Appendix,) make further regulations with respect to the East India trade. By the first Act, British subjects may trade between the United Kingdom and the limits of the Company's Charter, and to any *intermediate port or place* situate in North and South America, (British Colonies in America excepted,) either directly or circuitously, provided they do not trade in tea, excepting also the dominions of the Emperor of China. The second Act allows trade to be carried on with India in ships not British built, until the 1st of January 1815. The third Act makes various regulations with respect to duties, drawbacks, manifests, &c.

These four Acts of Parliament regulate the whole of the trade to India, in conformity to the new system which has been established; and it will be of importance that the provisions are well understood by all who carry on private trade, and embark their property in oriental adventures.

An untrodden path is now opened, to a certain extent, to the enterprise of the British merchant. It is to be hoped that it will be cautiously explored. Various opinions are entertained as to the policy and utility of this new privilege. Upon this point the sentiments of some of our greatest statesmen are at variance.

It is a possible case, that the separation of the Government and Commerce of India may operate powerfully in creating that competition among purchasers, upon which the prosperity of the natives

depend. If in trading the Company shall not only keep separate accounts, but carry on their trade solely and exclusively on the capital allotted for commerce, and upon true mercantile principles, looking always to an ultimate profit, as the private trader must do, a new feature may probably be given to the trade and commerce of India.

The attainment of this object, so intimately connected with the general prosperity of India, is certainly a powerful motive for throwing open its ports to British capital and British enterprise. Through this medium, (a medium which would give wealth to the natives,) an extension of trade may be expected.

The principles heretofore perhaps necessarily adopted, but not politically wise to continue, have given to the Company the whole monopoly, not only of the productions of the agriculturist, but of the labour of the manufacturer. No *freedom*, no *security*, no *real competition* can exist in a trade so conducted. At present, the Sovereign is the exporting merchant. The capital he employs is not like the capital of a merchant. It is furnished only from the taxes which the people pay. It is this fund that sets them to work. Under such a system, the people must always remain poor, where the Sovereign himself exports the produce of the labour of the people without any return. The evil arises from the connection between the Government and the Commerce of the country. The principal of separation strictly adhered to would remedy the evil, and increase the resources of the people. In proportion as they acquired wealth, their wants would increase, while the means of supplying these wants would augment the demand for articles of luxury and commerce, which are now unattainable.

In process of time, under a well-poised competition, it is a possible case that the manufacturers, instead of paying in kind at such prices as the monopoly fixes, might be able to pay their contribution in money. Such a state of things would be the first and the most solid proof of their advancing to a state of prosperity. The remittances to this country, public and private, check the prosperity of the people of India; but by such arrangements as would, by producing a fair competition, increase the wealth of the people, these drains would be less felt. The people would even be able to support heavier burthens, and while they enjoyed more comfort, the *revenue*, *resources*, *power*, and *security* of the Indian Empire would be augmented.

This can never be expected, however, to take place in the pursuit of a policy which exacts a tribute, while it monopolizes the commerce. It is commercial freedom alone that can lead to the discovery of the real resources of British India. It is admitted, that under the present system these resources are narrow and limited, and must continue until perfect freedom of trade can have full operation.

Having opened a trade to the merchants of the United Kingdom,—having given them, under certain limitations, a trade with India, in order to succeed it must stand on the foundation of *equal competition*. Without this, it can never prosper. The Company may trade as heretofore without gain, but the merchant must calculate not only on a profit, but he must actually realize it: if disappointed, without hopes of future success, he abandons the enterprise.

But let the vigilance of self interest, peculiar to merchants,—let their skill and enterprize be fairly opposed to the expensive system of management, which must pervade corporate establishments of such magnitude, and it is probable the result will be in favour of the private trader.

It is not reasonable to suppose that the trade and labour of India, possessing as it does so prolific a soil, and so vast a population, can remain stationary. The blessings of the improved Government, and the great security the people enjoy beyond what they experienced under their Native Princes, must necessarily accelerate an advance towards wealth and independence. No barrier can be set to human

industry when properly encouraged. The state of every well-governed country incontestibly proves this. It may be traced in the progress made in the United Kingdom, more strongly than in most other countries; although all have been advancing in Europe, and perhaps still more in America. The details, which will be found in this Work, render this conclusion self-evident. Why not, therefore, under the greatly-improved Government of British India, may not the same results be expected?

But it is not from the territories of the Company alone that the enterprise of the British merchants must be rewarded,—not only the British Colonies of Ceylon and the Mauritius, situated in the Asiatic Seas, but the vast countries (China excepted) which are under the Native Princes of Asia, are now rendered accessible to private adventure. The Eastern Archipelago is opened to them. In these countries are to be found persons of opulence, who may desire to possess many of the luxuries of Europe, when introduced under favourable circumstances. Industry may be stimulated from a desire to possess new conveniences and new comforts. The wants of mankind increase in proportion to the power they possess of gratifying them. The extent of these wants also depends on the means which Commerce affords of introducing hitherto unknown luxuries. The Spiceries, Tea, Coffee, and other articles, which Commerce brought to Europe from the Eastern Countries, were only rendered desirable when made known.

The same reasoning, at least to a certain degree, applies to the opulent inhabitants of Asia with respect to many articles of European produce and manufacture, which may find an advantageous sale as soon as enterprise and perseverance and industry shall enable the adventurers to discover those articles, which are most acceptable to the people resident in the various countries that are visited, and which will of course form the cargoes exported.

When the wide range, which is now opened to the private trader is considered, extending to every port or place within the Company's Charter, and to all *intermediate places in North and South America*, (the British Colonies excepted,) it is impossible to say what may be the result of experiments on so extended a scale, which heretofore had been shut against individual enterprise. It is impossible to anticipate either the advantages or disadvantages which would result from this as yet untrodden path of Commerce; but to conclude, in the language of a great and enlightened Statesman, who has deeply reflected on the subject:—“ *If there were ever two countries destined and formed by nature for commercial intercourse, these countries are the Southern Provinces of Asia and the Western Shores of South America. The precious metals in which the one abounds have always, from the remotest antiquity down to the present hour, been the staple article of import into the other; the produce and manufactures of which are again peculiarly suited to the consumption of climates so congenial to their own. This copious,—this inexhaustible source of trading enterprize must be available principally to the British people. To the merchants it would be invaluable; and if in the consumption of South America the industry of the British manufacturer should establish, as we may justly hope, no unsuccessful competition even with that of his fellow subjects in Bengal, how much will the direct intercourse with that Continent facilitate to him also the returns of such a trade?*”

“ *Those who understand Commerce, and the true principles of its wise administration, will know that all its interests are interwoven, all its branches inseparably connected. It is the union not of Commerce with Government, but of Commerce with Commerce, that a provident Legislature will respect. Numerous are the commercial enterprises, which would be of small benefit if limited to the direct intercourse between one country and another, but which, by intermediate or subsequent transactions in other markets and in distant regions, would become highly advantageous both to private and to national interests.*”

" It is in this view, that I feel an indescribable anxiety to secure to our merchants a full participation not of parts and portions only, but of the whole Commerce of the East. I wish to grant and guarantee to them, not that alone which I can with limited views only discern and define ; but that also which shall be the ulterior and unforeseen effect of their own skill and enterprise, following up these advantages with ardour, and deriving from every successful operation both the spirit and the means of new exertion.

" To the encouragement of such hopes, no moment was ever yet more favourable. The barrier of prejudice is shaken. The spirit of monopoly is justly giving way to juster principles of trade ; and the change of public opinion, in this country, is seconded by the great revolutions in the world.

" What a scene does this present to the imagination ! We are told, that when the Spanish discoverers first overcame, with labour and peril almost unspeakable, the mighty range of mountains which divides the Western from the Atlantic Shores of South America, they stood fixed in silent admiration, gazing on the vast expanse of the Southern Ocean, which lay stretched before them in boundless prospect. They adored the gracious Providence, which, after the lapse of so many centuries, had opened to mankind so wonderful a field of unheard and unimagined enterprise. But theirs was the glory of conquest, the prey of unjust ambition. As vast as their's ; infinitely more honourable ; far higher both in purpose and recompence are the hopes with which the same prospects elevate our hearts. Over countries yet unknown to science, and in tracts which British navigation has scarcely yet explored, we hope to carry the tranquil arts,—the social enjoyments,—the friendly and benevolent intercourse of Commerce.

" By the link of mutual interest,—by the bond of reciprocal good will, we hope to connect together the remotest regions of the earth ; humble and weak, but not rejected instruments of that great purpose of our Creator which he has laid in the reciprocal necessities both of individuals and nations,—the firmest ground-work of all human society."

ABSTRACT

OF

THE ACT RELATIVE TO THE EAST INDIA COMPANY'S AFFAIRS,

53 GEO. III. CAP. 155.

Intituled "An Act for continuing in the East India Company, for
" a further Term, the Possession of the British Territories in India,
" together with certain exclusive Privileges; for establishing further
" Regulations for the Government of the said Territories, and the better
" Administration of Justice within the same; and for regulating the Trade
" to and from the Places within the Limits of the said Company's Char-
" ter." (21st July 1813.)

IT is deemed expedient that the territorial acquisitions mentioned in the 33 Geo. III. cap. 52, together with such others on the continent of Asia, or in any islands to the north of the equator as are now under the dominion of the United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies, with the revenues thereof, should, without prejudice to the undoubted sovereignty of the Crown of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, remain in their possession for a further term, subject to such powers and authorities relating to the civil and military branches of the government of the said territories as either have been or shall be provided by Parliament. And that from and after the 10th April 1814, the right of trading to and from all parts within the limits of the said United Company's present Charter (except the dominions of the Emperor of China) should be open to all his Majesty's subjects in common with the said United Company, subject to certain regulations and provisions; but that the existing restraints respecting the commercial intercourse with China should be continued, and the exclusive trade in tea preserved to the said Company during a further term.

1st. The territorial acquisitions on the continent of Asia, or in any islands situate to the north of the equator now in the said Company's possession, shall continue under their dominion for a further term, to take date from the 10th April 1814, subject to the provisions of any Act of Parliament.

2d. The said Company shall continue to have the exclusive right of trading to and from the dominions of the Emperor of China, and of trafficking in tea to and from all places between the Cape of Good Hope and the Straights of Magellan, during the further term granted by the Act in question.

Preamble.
Territorial acquisitions to continue under the Government of the Company for a further term.

Exclusive trade with China continued for a further term.

The term and exclusive trade to cease on three years notice by Parliament after 10th of April 1831.

Not to affect the Corporation of the Company, nor their right to trade in common with other British subjects.

Notice by Parliament.

British subjects may trade between the United Kingdom and all parts within the East India Company's limits, except China, in ships legally navigated.

All goods, except tea, may be imported from all parts within the said limits, China excepted, notwithstanding the Navigation Act.

No tea to be imported but by the said Company's authority.

Nor military stores exported to certain places.

Ships in private trade to be cleared out from some port in the United Kingdom. And goods to be imported into such ports as are declared fit by Order in Council.

No ship in private trade to proceed to certain parts without a licence from the Court of Directors, nor unless specially authorized to their principal settlements. Special licences to be obtained from the Court of Directors. Ships proceeding to certain parts to be furnished with a licence from the Board of Control.

Such ships not to be under 350 tons; not to extend to packets.

3d. At any time upon three years notice to be given by Parliament after the 10th April 1831, and on payment made of any sum or sums of money due from the Public to the said Company, the term and all right to any exclusive trade under this Act shall cease.

4th. The Corporation of the said United Company shall not be terminated nor prevented from carrying on after such determination of their exclusive trade, a free trade to and from the East Indies within the limits of the said Act or Charter in common with other British subjects, any Act or Charter to the contrary notwithstanding.

5th. The notice of the Speaker of the House of Commons, in writing, by an order of the House, shall be adjudged a due and proper notice by Parliament.

6th. From and after the 10th April 1814, any of his Majesty's subjects, in common with the said United Company, may export and import, in ships legally navigated, between all ports and places within the limits before-mentioned, excepting China, and any port in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, any goods and merchandize which can now or may at any time be legally exported and imported, subject to such provisions and restrictions as are contained in the said Act.

7th. Notwithstanding the Act, 12 Car. II. cap. 18, British subjects may import in ships, legally navigated, into the said United Kingdom, from all parts within the limits of the said Company's Charter, China excepted, all goods, wares, or merchandize, except tea, although such goods, wares, or merchandize, may not be of the growth or production of the country from which they are exported.

8th. None but the said United Company, or some person by them authorised, in writing, shall ship, carry, or import any tea from the East Indies, or other parts within the said limits, into the said United Kingdom.

9th. No military stores shall be carried to any place upon the continent of Asia between the river Indus and the town of Malacca, on the peninsula of Malacca inclusive, or in any island under the Company's government north of the equator, or to their factory of Bencoolen in the island of Sumatra and its dependencies, but under the authority of the said Company.

10th. Ships in private trade shall be cleared out from some port in the United Kingdom, and no goods shall be imported but into such ports in the United Kingdom as shall be declared fit and proper for the deposit of such goods by an order of the King in Council in Great Britain, or by an order of the Lord Lieutenant in Council in Ireland.

11th. Ships in private trade shall not proceed to any place within the limits of the Company's Charter on the continent of Asia, from the river Indus to the town of Malacca, or to any of their islands lying to the north of the equator, or to their factory of Bencoolen, without a licence from the Court of Directors, nor unless specially authorized to any places except one of their principal settlements of Fort William, Fort St. George, Bombay, and Prince of Wales' Island. Special licenses to be granted by the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Control.

12th. No ship shall proceed further to the northward than 11 degrees south latitude, and between the 64th and 150th degrees east longitude from London (except the ports and places already mentioned) without a licence from the Board of Control.

13th. No ship or vessel whose registered measurement is less than 350 tons, except packets, shall be allowed to trade between the United Kingdom and the limits of the said Company's Charter.

- 14th. No vessel shall be permitted to clear out from, or be admitted to entry at any port in the United Kingdom, or limits of the said Company's Charter, until the master of such vessel shall have made out, and exhibited a manifest of the cargo of such vessel. A manifest of the cargo on board to be produced previous to entry and clearance.
- 15th. An attested list of persons, setting forth their names, capacities, and descriptions, and all arms on board shall be required from every ship before clearing out or entry, which shall trade between the United Kingdom and any place situate more to the northward than 11 degrees of south latitude, and between the 64th and 150th degrees of East Longitude from London. An attested list of persons and arms on board every ship required before clearing out or entry.
- 16th. A copy of such list received at any port in the United Kingdom shall be immediately transmitted to the Secretary of the Court of Directors; and a copy of such list received in any port in the East Indies shall in like manner be sent to the Chief Secretary to the Government, to whom the port or place in which such list shall be received shall be subject. Copy of such list received in England to be sent to the Secretary of the Court of Directors, and in India to the Secretary of the Government.
- 17th. Articles manufactured of silk, hair, cotton wool, or any mixture thereof, imported from any place within the limits of the said Company's Charter, shall not be entered or taken out of any warehouse, except for exportation, unless the same shall have been brought into the Port of London, and deposited in the Company's warehouses. Such articles to be publicly sold to ascertain the duties. Articles of silk, hair, or cotton wool, not to be entered or taken out of warehouses but for exportation, unless brought to London, &c. Such articles to be publicly sold.
- 18th. The Lords Commissioners of the Treasury may permit such articles, imported into an out-port, to be removed to London for the purpose of sale for home consumption under the like regulations as goods removed from one warehousing port to another by virtue of the 50 Geo. III. cap. 64, and to be deposited in the Company's warehouses, and publicly sold, and to be under the same regulations as if the said articles had been imported into the Port of London. Lords of the Treasury may authorize such articles, imported into an out-port, to be removed to London, and there sold for home consumption.
- 19th. Articles manufactured of silk, hair, cotton wool, or any mixture thereof, which shall be imported into the Port of London, or any out-port, and which shall be entered and taken out of any warehouse for exportation, shall be charged according to their value. Such articles when taken out of warehouses for exportation to be charged ad valorem.
- 20th. Parliament shall not be prevented from making such further provisions during the said term as may be necessary to enable his Majesty's subjects to trade directly or circuitously, as well between all places without and within the limits of the Company's Charter (except China) as between the United Kingdom and all places within such limits, China excepted; but without prejudice to any of the provisions or restrictions contained in the Act in question, as to the resort to and residence of any persons in the East Indies and parts aforesaid. British subjects may be authorised to trade directly or circuitously between places without and within the Company's limits, except China, also between the United Kingdom and the said places, China excepted.
- 21st. So much of the 31 Geo. III. cap. 42, as relates to the putting up at public sales, and delivering into the King's stores certain quantities of salt petre at certain rates, shall be repealed. Sale and delivery of salt-petre to government at certain rates repealed.
- 22d. So much of the 9 Will. III. cap. 44, as requires goods belonging to any private trader, imported into England or Wales from the East Indies and publicly sold by inch of candle, shall be repealed. So much of 9 W. III. c. 44, as requires private trade goods to be publicly sold, repealed.
- 23d. So much of the 33 Geo. III. cap. 52, as regulates the private trade with respect to exports and imports, the laying invoices of cordage, masts, pitch, &c. before the Board of Control, appropriating tonnage, fixing the rate of freight, registering private trade goods, granting licences, &c. or requiring outward-bound ships to touch at Cork, shall be repealed. So much of 33 Geo. III. c. 52, as regulates exports and imports of private traders, and requires ships to touch at Cork, repealed.

Company's goods imported or exported to be subject to the same duties as are imposed on similar private trade goods.
No duty or tax imposed in India to be valid till authorised by the Court of Directors, &c.
Duty paid to the Company on private trade repealed.

But not to extend to goods imported into London, nor to imports from China; and not to affect the Company's engagements with their captains and officers.

Duties due to the East India Dock Company to be paid before the delivery of the goods.

If such duties are not paid, the goods to be sent to the Company's warehouse and sold, and the duties deducted.

Company authorized to trade in India built ships for one year, from 10th April 1814.

King in Council may authorize such ships to be employed in private trade for the like term.

Such ships not liable to any penalty or forfeiture.

Limits of ships engaged in the Southern whale fisheries.
Licenses to be granted by the Board of Control beyond certain limits.

No such ship under 350 tons to sail without a licence from the Board of Control.

Such ships not to go to certain places without a licence from the Court of Directors.

Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Control, may grant certificates to persons desirous of going out to India.

24th. Goods and merchandize of the Company, exported or imported within the limits of their Charter, shall be subject to the payment of the same rates and duties as are imposed upon the like articles in private trade.

25th. No new or additional duty or tax imposed in India shall be valid or effectual until sanctioned by the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Control.

26th. The duty paid to the Company of £3 per centum on goods imported into this kingdom from the East Indies in private trade, under the 33 Geo. III. cap. 52, shall be repealed.

27th. The said repeal shall not extend to release the payment of £3 per centum on silk, hair, cotton wool, or any mixture thereof, imported into London by private traders, and deposited in the Company's warehouses, nor of the duty of £5 per centum imposed by the 9 Will. III., nor the charge of £2 per centum on private trade goods, which shall be imported in any of the Company's ships from China; nor to affect any covenants or engagements between the Company and the commanders or masters of their ships, their officers or servants.

28th. Duties on goods granted to the East India Dock Company by the 43 Geo. III. and 46 Geo. III. shall be paid before the delivery of such goods to the owners or consignees thereof.

29th. If the said duties are not paid before the goods are discharged from the ship, such goods shall be sent to and deposited in the Company's warehouses, and shall be sold on account of the owners, out of which such duties, and all reasonable expences attending the same, shall be deducted.

30th. The authority granted to the Company by the 35 Geo. III. cap. 115, and 42 Geo. III. cap. 22, to export and import goods in ships not of British built, shall be continued for the further term of one year, from the 10th April 1814, unless any provision shall be made respecting the same in the next Session of Parliament. And during such term his Majesty may by Order in Council authorize British subjects to export and import any goods and merchandize, except tea, in all such ships between the United Kingdom and all places within the limits of the said Company's Charter, China excepted.

31st. Such ships shall not be liable to any penalty or forfeiture on account of the importation or exportation of any goods under the said Act or Order in Council.

32d. Ships engaged in the Southern whale fisheries may sail to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope and to the westward of the Straights of Magellan. No such ship shall sail further to the northward than 11 degrees of south latitude, and between the 64th and 150th degrees of east longitude from London without a licence from the Board of Control. No such ship under 350 tons shall sail to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, or to the westward of the Straights of Magellan, without a licence from the Board of Control. No such ship shall call at any port or place upon the continent of Asia, from the river Indus to the said town of Malacca inclusive, or any island within the limits of the Company's Charter north of the equator, nor their factory at Bencoolen, without a licence from the said Court of Directors.

33d. Persons desirous of going to and remaining in India may, on application, obtain a certificate for that purpose from the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Control, and, so long as they shall conduct themselves properly, shall be entitled to the countenance and protection of the several governments within the limits of the said Company's Charter.

- 34th. The Court of Directors shall be at liberty to offer such representations to the Board of Control respecting persons applying for leave to proceed to India as they shall think fit. Representations respecting persons going out to India.
- 35th. All persons on their arrival shall be subject to the regulations of the Company's local governments. Persons on arrival to be subject to the local governments.
- 36th. If any such person shall so conduct himself as in the judgment of the governments in India respectively to have forfeited his claim to their countenance and protection, his certificate of residence may, by their order, be declared void, and such person shall be deemed and taken to be a person residing there without licence or authority. Local governments may declare certificates void of persons who have forfeited their claim to protection.
 No person whose certificate shall have been void, as above-mentioned, shall be liable to any prosecution for residing in India without a licence until two months after notice of such order, by publication in the presidency gazette, or by a copy of such order left with the said person. Such persons not to be prosecuted for residing in India without licence, until two months after notice of order.
- 37th. No British subject shall reside within the limits of the Company's Charter, from the 10th April 1814, unless authorized by law or by a licence or certificate from the Court of Directors. The Governor-General or Governor of any of the said presidencies may, by special licence, authorize the residence of any British subject within the said limits, until the pleasure of the Court of Directors shall be known. British subjects not to reside in India without a licence or certificate from the Court of Directors, unless specially authorized by the Governor General, &c.
- 38th. The Board of Control may, by licence in writing, authorise any person to proceed to and reside at any place more to the northward than 11 degrees of south latitude, and between the 64th and 150th degrees of east longitude from London, and not being upon the continent of Asia, between the river Indus and the town of Malacca inclusive, nor in any island under the Company's government lying north of the equator, nor at the Company's factory at Bencoolen, nor at China. Board of Control may authorise persons to proceed to and reside within certain limits of the Company's Charter.
- 39th. British subjects may proceed to and reside at any place situate more to the southward than 11 degrees of south latitude, or more to the westward than 64 degrees, or more to the eastward than 150 degrees of east longitude from London, for any lawful purposes, without a licence. British subjects authorised to go to and reside at places within certain limits without a licence.
- 40th. If any British subjects other than such as shall be licenced by the said United Company shall, during the further term hereby granted, sail to or trade within the limits of the said Company's Charter, such persons shall be deemed to have unlawfully traded there, and together with all others concerned, the ships, goods, treasure, &c. found on board shall be subject to the like penalties, forfeitures, and methods of suit as are contained in the said Acts of the 33d of the King, or in any Act now in force for securing the rights of the said Company, and restraining clandestine and illicit trade. Persons trading without a licence to ports within the limits of the Company's Charter, to be subject to the penalties imposed on illicit traders.
- 41st. If any ship shall by stress of weather, or other inevitable accident, be driven or forced within the said limits, and shall return with all convenient speed, such ship shall not be subject to forfeiture. The proof thereof shall lie on the party claiming the benefit of such exemption. Ships driven by stress of weather within the said limits not to be forfeited.
- 42d. The Board of Control may issue and send out to the several Governments of the Company, through the medium of the Court of Directors, such orders and instructions as they shall think fit respecting the colleges at Calcutta and Fort St. George, and all seminaries which may be established under the authority of the Company. Colleges and seminaries in India to be subject to the Board of Control.

Provisions for schools and literary institutions in India for the natives.

Local governments to appoint to vacant offices.

College and military seminary in England to be continued.

Bishop of London to exercise visitatorial power over the said College.

No person to be appointed a writer without residing four terms at the College. Principal appointments in the said College.

Principal and professors to be exempted from parochial residence.

If a bishop and three archdeacons shall be established in India by the King's Letters Patent, their salaries to be paid by the Company.

Salaries to date from taking possession of office.

Bishop's functions and jurisdiction.

Ecclesiastical jurisdiction to be granted by the King's Letters Patent.

Warrant for Letters Patent.

Pensions to the bishop and archdeacons after 15 years service.

Revenues from their territorial acquisitions to be applied :—

1st. In maintaining forts, forces, &c.

2d. In payment of interest of their debt in India.

3d. In defraying expences of their establishments.

43d. A sum of not less than one lack of rupees in each year shall be set apart and applied to the revival and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories in India. And all schools and literary institutions there shall be regulated by the Governor-General in Council, subject to the control of the Board of Commissioners for the affairs of India. But all appointments in such schools shall be made by authority of the local governments respectively.

44th. The college and military seminary in England shall be continued during the further term granted to the Company. And the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Control, shall make rules and regulations for the good government of the same.

45th. The Lord Bishop of London shall be authorised and empowered to exercise visitatorial power and jurisdiction over the said college.

46th. The Court of Directors shall not appoint any person in the capacity of a writer unless he shall have been duly entered at such college, and shall have resided there four terms.

47th. No order for the appointment of any office or principal of the said college, or head master of the military seminary, shall be valid until the same shall have been approved by the Board of Control.

48th. Every spiritual person holding the situation of principal or professor in the said college shall be exempted from residence on any benefice of which he may be possessed.

49th. In case a bishop and three archdeacons shall be established in India by his Majesty's letters patent, the said Court of Directors shall cause the following salaries to be paid to them, namely, to the bishop £5000 by the year, and to each of the archdeacons £2000, so long as the said territorial acquisitions shall remain in the possession of the said Company.

50th. The said salaries shall commence on such persons taking upon them the execution of their respective offices; and such salaries shall be in lieu of all fees of office, perquisites, and emoluments.

51st. Such bishop shall not use or exercise any jurisdiction or episcopal functions other than such as may be limited to him by his Majesty's letters patent.

52d. His Majesty may from time to time by his letters patent grant to such bishop such ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and the exercise of such episcopal functions in India, as he shall think necessary.

53d. The warrant for issuing any letters patent respecting any such bishoprick or archdeaconry shall be countersigned by the President of the Board of Control.

54th. The King may grant the following pensions to any such bishop and archdeacons respectively who shall have exercised his said office in India for fifteen years, namely, a sum not exceeding £1,500 per annum to any such bishop, and to any such archdeacon a pension not exceeding £800 per annum.

55th. The Revenues, &c. arising from the Company's territorial acquisitions, after defraying the charges and expences of collecting the same, shall be applied and disposed of as follows :—

First, In raising and maintaining forces, as well European as Native, in maintaining forts and garrisons, and in providing warlike stores in India.

Secondly, In payment of the interest accruing from debts due by the Company in India.

Thirdly, In defraying the expences of the Company's civil and commercial establishments at their several settlements.

- Fourthly, Towards the liquidation of the Company's debts in India, of the bond debt at home, or to such other purposes as the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Control, shall from time to time direct.
- 56th. A sum equal to the actual payments made from the commercial funds at home, on account of territorial charges in the preceding year, shall be appropriated in India annually to the Company's China or India investment, or for remittance to England.
- 57th. During the Company's domination in India, all their profits in Great Britain, consisting of the net proceeds of their sales of goods at home, duties and allowances arising from private trade, commercial profits, and other receipts, shall be applied as follows:—
 First, In providing for the payment of bills of exchange as they become due.
 Secondly, In providing for the payment of debts (except the principal of the bond debt in England) as well as interest, and the commercial outgoings and other expenses of the said Company.
 Thirdly, In payment of a dividend of ten pounds per centum per annum on the amount of the capital stock of the Company until the "Company's Separate Fund" shall be exhausted, and then in payment of ten pounds ten shillings per cent. per annum, so that no greater than the last mentioned sum shall be paid in any one year on the present or future capital stock of the said Company.
 Fourthly, In reduction of the principal of the debt in India, or of the bond debt at home, as the said Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Control, shall from time to time direct.
- 58th. The net proceeds of the sales of goods and other commercial profits of the Company in Great Britain shall not be liable to the liquidation of any territorial or political charge in India, till after the said dividend shall first have been provided for, excepting
 1st, such bills of exchange or certificates for which value shall have been previously paid in India—excepting 2d, the amount of the interest and sinking fund on the loan of 1812, advanced by the public to the said Company. If the funds in the hands of the said Company, after payment of the dividend, shall not prove sufficient to discharge all such bills, the residue of such bills shall be discharged in such manner as Parliament shall direct. Any monies which shall be received into the treasury of the Company at home shall be applied to defray the territorial or political charges payable in Europe; and the excess of such funds shall be subject to such further appropriations as the territorial revenues are liable to under the same Act. And any deficiency shall be made good out of the surplus revenues of the preceding year.
- 59th. When the India debt bearing interest shall be reduced to ten millions pounds sterling, and the bonded debt in Great Britain to three millions pounds sterling, then the surplus proceeds arising from trade or the revenues, shall be applied to the more speedy repayment of their capital of any public funds or securities. Any further surplus shall be paid into his Majesty's Exchequer, to be applied as Parliament shall direct; but all sums not exceeding twelve millions pounds sterling shall be deemed a fund for securing the Company's capital stock, and also the dividend of £10 10s. per cent. per annum. In case of any excess beyond the said sum of twelve millions pounds sterling, one-sixth shall be reserved for the use of the said Company, and the remaining five-sixths shall be deemed the property of the public, and at the disposal of Parliament.

4th. Towards liquidation of their territorial or bond debt, &c.

A certain sum to be applied annually in India to the Company's investment or remittance.

Company's profits in Great Britain to be applied:—

1st. In payment of bills of exchange.

2d. In payment of debts except principal of bond debt.

3d. In payment of a dividend of 10% per cent. till the "Separate Fund" is exhausted, and then 10½ per cent.

4th. In reduction of Indian debt or bond debt.

Home profits not liable to territorial charges until after the dividend be provided for.

Exceptions.

If funds prove insufficient the deficiency to be discharged as Parliament shall direct.

Monies received at home shall be applied to defray territorial charges payable in Europe.

Application of surplus revenues and trade profits.

Guarantee Fund for the capital stock and dividend.

Excess of 12 millions pounds sterling, 1 6th to the Company, the other 5 6ths property of the Public.

If the debts shall be again increased beyond certain sums, such surplus to be applied to reduce them.

So much of 33 Geo. III. c. 52, as relates to the payment of £500,000. by the Company, shall be repealed.

Dividend of 10s. per cent. per annum to be paid out of the Company's Separate Fund till exhausted.

37 Geo. III. cap. 31, § 9, repealed.

Books of account to exhibit the political, territorial, and commercial branches of their affairs separately and distinctly.

Same principles of separation to be observed in the annual accounts laid before Parliament.

Copies of regulations in India to be laid before Parliament annually.

Duties on Company's and private trade goods to be distinguished.

Board of Control's authority with respect to the appropriation of the territorial revenues.

Court of Directors to deliver copies of proceedings and dispatches to the Board of Control.

No dispatches to be sent to India until approved by the Board of Control.

Board of Control to return dispatches to Court of Directors within two months.

60th. If the debts in India after having been reduced to ten millions of pounds sterling, and the bonded debt in Great Britain to three millions shall be again increased beyond that amount respectively, such surplus proceeds shall be appropriated to the reduction of the said new debts.

61st. So much of the 33 Geo. III. cap. 52, as relates to the payment of a sum not exceeding £500,000 every year into the Exchequer or the Bank, or to the recovery thereof, shall be repealed.

62d. A dividend of ten shillings per cent. per annum shall be paid out of 'the Company's Separate Fund' so long as the same shall be sufficient for that purpose. And any deficiency shall be supplied from the net proceeds arising from the Company's profits on the trade or revenues.

63d. So much of the 37 Geo. III. cap. 31, § 9, as directs a dividend of ten shillings per cent. upon the increased stock, to be paid out of the annual profits of the Company, shall be repealed.

64th. The Court of Directors shall direct the books of account of the said Company, both abroad and at home, to be so kept and arranged as that the same shall exhibit the territorial, political, and commercial branches of their affairs respectively. The said Court of Directors shall forthwith submit a plan for such an arrangement of the accounts accordingly to the Board of Control for their approbation.

65th. The accounts required by the 33 Geo. III. cap. 52, to be annually laid before Parliament, shall be henceforth prepared and arranged in conformity to the principles of separation of the territorial, political, and commercial branches of their affairs above-mentioned.

66th. Copies of all the regulations made by the Company's several governments in India shall, together with the said accounts, be annually laid before Parliament.

67th. Duties on goods in India, exported or imported, belonging to the said Company, shall be charged in the books of account to the debit of the commercial branch of their affairs. And duties received on private trade goods shall be placed in the books of account to the credit of the territorial revenues of the said Company.

68th. The Board of Control shall have full power and authority to appropriate any part of the territorial revenues to commercial purposes, other than such sums as are directed by this Act to be issued for the payment of territorial charges in Europe, or on account of loans raised or securities issued in the East Indies.

69th. The Court of Directors shall deliver to the Board of Control copies of all proceedings of the Court of Proprietors or Court of Directors within eight days after the holding of such courts respectively, and of all dispatches received from all parts within the limits of the Company's Charter relating to the appropriation of the territorial revenues, loans, or securities to any commercial purposes.

70th. No orders or instructions relating to the appropriation of the territorial revenues, monies, or securities to investment or other commercial purposes shall be sent to any of the governments or settlements of the said Company in India, until the same shall have been submitted to and approved by the Board of Control.

71st. So much of the 33 Geo. III. cap. 52, as requires dispatches to be returned by the Board of Control to the Court of Directors within fourteen days, shall be repealed. And under the present Act the said Board shall return such dispatches within two months.

- 72d. Proceedings of the Board of Control may be signed either by the chief secretary, or the assistant secretary to the said Board. Proceedings of the Board of Control to be signed by the Chief or Assistant Secretary.
- 73d. Secret Committee of Directors shall not disclose the contents of any dispatches from India relating to war, peace, or negotiations, until authorised so to do by the Board of Control. Secret Committee of Directors not to disclose contents of certain dispatches.
- 74th. Directors, appointed a Secret Committee, shall take an oath of secrecy to the foregoing effect. Oath.
- 75th. Persons employed by such Secret Committee in preparing and transcribing secret dispatches shall take an oath of secrecy, as similar as the case will admit to the above-mentioned. Oath to be taken by persons employed in transcribing secret dispatches.
- 76th. The Year and title of this Act shall be inserted in the oath prescribed to be taken by the Directors forming the Secret Committee. Year and title of this Act to be inserted in the oath.
- 77th. No question in any General Court or Court of Directors shall be carried otherwise than by a majority of votes. And in all cases of an equality of votes, such question shall be considered as rejected, except in case of an election of a person to any office or place for which there shall be more than one candidate and an equality of votes, such election may be determined by lot in manner directed by the said Charter. Equality of votes in Courts of Directors to operate as a rejection of the question—except for an office by lot.
- 78th. The Court of Directors shall with all reasonable dispatch cause to be prepared all such accounts, statements, and abstracts relating to the affairs of the Company as the Board of Control shall think fit, and the same to be laid before the said Board. Board of Control may require accounts from the Court of Directors.
- 79th. Proceedings within the Company's limits abroad shall be signed by the chief secretary to the government or presidency there, or in his absence, by the principal secretary of the department of such government or presidency to which such proceedings relate. Signature of Proceedings in India.
- 80th. All vacancies of governors and commanders in chief of the forces in India, provincial and otherwise, shall be filled up by the Court of Directors, subject to his Majesty's approbation. Such governor or commander in chief shall be removable at the will and pleasure of the Court of Directors. Vacancies of Governors and Commanders in Chief. Right of recall continued in the Court of Directors.
- 81st. The Court of Directors shall not appoint any person to any employment or office in the civil or military establishments in India without the approbation of the Board of Control, other than and except as aforesaid. The said Court of Directors shall however appoint such persons as they may think fit to the offices of member of council, general officer on the staff, advocate and attorney general at law of the said Company, or chaplain, or to any offices or employments in the civil and marine establishments, including writers, cadets, or assistant surgeons, in such manner as they have been accustomed to do. Other vacancies in India to be filled up by the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Control, with certain exceptions.
- 82d. Any office or employment, the emoluments of which shall exceed £1,500 per annum, may be granted to any of the Company's servants who shall have been resident in India four years antecedent to such vacancy. And any office or employment whose emoluments exceed £3000 per annum may be conferred upon any of the said servants who shall have been resident in India seven years. And any office or employment exceeding £4000 per annum, such office including that of the Council, may be conferred upon any of the said servants who shall have resided ten years in India. Period of residence in India in the Company's service required to qualify any person for offices exceeding £1,500 per annum.
- 83d. No restoration of any suspended civil or military servant of the said Company to his station or employment by the Court of Directors shall be valid or effectual without the approbation and consent of the Board of Control. Restoration of suspended civil or military servants to their offices or stations.

Certain officers permitted to return to India after five years absence with their former rank.

Precedence of Company's restored civil servants in India after five years absence.

Civil servants may be appointed members of public boards. Precedence of such members.

King's troops in the Company's service not to exceed 20,000 men, unless by requisition from Court of Directors.

No gratuity exceeding £600 to be granted by the Court of Directors without the consent of the Board of Control. Copies of such grants to be laid before Parliament.

Commencement of salaries of certain officers, and payment of passage expenses.

Expences of equipment and voyage.

84th. The Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Control, may permit any general officer, or colonel commanding a regiment, or lieutenant colonel commandant of a regiment, who shall have been absent from India for five years, to have his rank and to be capable of again serving in India.

85th. Persons restored to the Company's civil service in India, after an absence of five years, shall take rank and precedence according to the length of such service at the period of his departure from India.

86th. The Governor General or Governor in Council may appoint any civil servant to be a member of any court, board, or other establishment in India. Such civil servant shall take precedence according to the seniority of his appointment as member of such board or other establishment, and not according to the seniority of his appointment to the Company's service.

87th. The Board of Control shall not authorise the payment of any sums for a greater number of his Majesty's forces serving in India than 20,000 men, including officers; unless a greater number shall be sent to India on the requisition of the Court of Directors.

88th. No gratuity exceeding £600 shall be granted by the Court of Directors to any person unless sanctioned by the Court of Proprietors, and approved by the Board of Control. Copies of warrants or instruments granting any salary or gratuity shall be submitted to both Houses of Parliament within one month after such grant, if Parliament shall be then sitting, or if not, within one month after their then next meeting.

89th. So much of the 13 Geo. III. cap. 63 : 37 Geo. III. cap. 142 : and 39 and 40 Geo. III. cap. 79, as relates to the commencement of salaries, shall be repealed. And from the passing of the present Act the salaries of the several officers herein beforementioned shall commence from their respectively taking upon them the execution of their offices. The Court of Directors shall advance to the officers and persons hereinafter mentioned the sums of money set against their names respectively for the purpose of defraying the expences of their equipment and voyage, namely,

Governor General of Fort William in Bengal	£5,000
Each of the Members of Council there	1,200
Commander in Chief of all the forces in India	2,500
Chief Justice of the Supreme Court at Fort William	1,500
Each of the Puisne Judges there	1,000
Governor of Fort St. George	3,000
Each of the Members of Council there	1,000
Commander in Chief there	2,000
Chief Justice of the Supreme Court there	1,200
Each of the Puisne Judges there	1,000
Governor of Bombay	2,500
Each of the Members of Council there	1,000
Commander in Chief there	1,500
Recorder there	1,000
Governor of Prince of Wales's Island	1,200
Recorder there	1,000
Bishop	1,200
Each of the Archdeacons	500

- 90th. So much of the 51 Geo. III. as relates to the sum limited to be defrayed by the Company on account of the Board of Control, shall be repealed. And from the passing of the present Act the salaries of the members of the Board of Control, their secretaries and officers and contingent expences shall not exceed the sum of £26,000 in any one year. The same shall be considered part of the political charges of the said Company.
- 91st. His Majesty shall be empowered to grant such allowances, remunerations, or superannuations as he shall think proper to the secretaries and officers of the Board of Control, subject to the like conditions, and in such proportions as specified in the 50 Geo. III. cap. 117. The same shall be paid quarterly by the said Company, and form part of their political charge.
- 92d. In computing the number of years' service of any officer under the Board of Control who shall have previously been in the service of the said Company, such previous service under the said Company shall be taken into account.
- 93d. The Court of Directors may grant the following sums annually by way of superannuations to the officers and servants of the said Company in England, namely,
- | | | | |
|--|--|---|--|
| Any Sum not exceeding the following proportions of the Salary and Emoluments of his Office. | | } Court of Directors may grant superannuations to the Company's servants in England in the following proportions, | |
| If he shall have served with diligence and fidelity in the Company's service for 10 years, and, being under 60 years of age, shall be incapable from infirmity of mind or body to discharge the duties of his office | | | |
| If above 10 years and less than 20 | | | |
| If above 20 years | | | |
| If such officer or servant shall be above 60 years of age, and he shall have served 15 years or upwards, without proof of infirmity of mind or body | | | |
| If 65 years of age or upwards, and he shall have served 40 years or upwards | | } Three-fourths | |
| If 65 years or upwards, and he shall have served 50 years or upwards | | | |
| | | The whole. | |
- 94th. An Account of all superannuations granted to officers or servants of the said Company, or officers of the Board of Control, during the preceding year, shall be laid before Parliament within fifteen days after its next meeting.
- 95th. The present Act shall not prejudice or affect the undoubted sovereignty of the Imperial Crown of Great Britain and Ireland in and over the said territorial acquisitions, nor the rights of the said Company after the determination of the present Charter.
- 96th. The Governments in India shall be authorised to make such laws, regulations, and articles of war as they may think fit for the order and discipline of the native troops, and for the administration of justice by courts martial, and for all other purposes relating to the native officers and soldiers in as full and ample a manner as they are authorised to do for the government of the natives of the several territories under their dominion.
- 97th. All former laws, regulations, and articles of war, courts martial, and established usages respecting the native troops, are by the present Act ratified, confirmed, and declared to be legally had and done.

Salaries and charges of the Board of Control.

His Majesty may grant superannuations to the secretaries and officers of the Board of Control, according to 50 Geo. III. c. 117.

Service of officers under the Board of Control.

Court of Directors may grant superannuations to the Company's servants in England in the following proportions,

Account of superannuations to be annually laid before Parliament.

Act not to prejudice or affect the King's sovereignty or Company's rights.

Governments in India may make laws and regulations for the native troops, and hold courts martial.

Former laws respecting the native troops in India confirmed.

Governor General and Governors in Council may impose duties and taxes with consent of the Board of Control.

And may make laws respecting such duties and taxes, and impose fines.

Advocate General or other principal law officer of the Company may exhibit information in matters of revenue in the supreme courts.

British subjects liable to a fine for residence in India without a licence.

Subject to prosecution for a misdemeanour, or to be sent to the United Kingdom.

King's Courts to hold sessions four times in each year.

Misdemeanours committed by British subjects more than 100 miles from each Presidency.

Persons residing in India without a licence to be sent home.

Provincial magistrates to take cognizance of assaults and trespasses.

Provincial magistrates to take cognizance of small debts.

British subjects resident or possessing immoveable property more than ten miles from each Presidency to be subject to the jurisdiction of the courts.
Restrictions of suit.

98th. The Governor General and Governors in Council at Bengal, Madras, Bombay, and Prince of Wales's Island, may impose duties of customs and other taxes within their governments on all goods and merchandize in as full and ample a manner as they have heretofore lawfully done. No imposition of any such duty or tax, nor any increase shall be valid or effectual until sanctioned by the said Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Control.

99th. The Governor General and Governors in Council may make laws and regulations respecting such duties and taxes, and impose fines and forfeitures for the non-payment thereof, or for the breach of such laws and regulations within their respective governments.

100th. The Advocate General or other principal law officer of the said Company at the several presidencies in India may exhibit to the supreme courts of judicature any information for any breach of the revenue laws, or for any fine or forfeiture or other matters of revenue, in the same manner as similar proceedings are had or taken in England, so far as the circumstances of the case and the course and practice of proceeding in the said Courts will admit. All fines and penalties shall belong to the said Company.

101st. Upon information being exhibited by the Advocate General, or other principal law officer of the said Company in any of the supreme courts at any of the presidencies, that a British subject has been found residing within the limits of the Company's Charter without a licence, such British subject shall, on proof thereof, pay a fine not exceeding 2000 rupees, and shall be imprisoned in the gaol of the presidency until such fine be paid. And in case of a second offence shall pay a fine not exceeding 4000 rupees, and shall be imprisoned until the same be paid. Such subject of his Majesty may nevertheless be prosecuted for a misdemeanour, or sent to the United Kingdom; but not in respect of any residence within the said limits previously to the date of such conviction.

102d. His Majesty's courts exercising criminal jurisdiction within the several presidencies in India shall hold their sessions four times at the least in every year, for the purpose of taking cognizance of all matters relating to pleas of the crown.

103d. For a misdemeanour committed by any British subject at a distance of more than 100 miles from each presidency, the Advocate General or other principal law officer of the Company may file an information *ex officio* in any of the supreme courts, and may prosecute as in similar cases of information in the Court of King's Bench in England.

104th. Persons found at any place within the limits of the Company's Charter without a licence may be sent home and discharged at any port in the United Kingdom.

105th. The Provincial magistrates in India shall have power and authority to take cognizance of any assault or trespass committed by British subjects on natives of India.

106th. The Provincial magistrates in India shall take cognizance of all debts due from British subjects to any native of India, not exceeding 50 rupees, being without the jurisdiction of the several courts of request in each presidency. The decision of such magistrates shall be final.

107th. British subjects resident carrying on trade, or possessing immoveable property, more than ten miles from each presidency, shall be subject to the jurisdiction of all the courts within the districts respectively. No British subject shall be liable to any action, unless it shall be commenced during his residence there, and the cause of suit arose within such jurisdiction, and the suit shall be commenced within two years after the cause thereof shall have arisen, and within six months after the defendant shall have left such jurisdiction.

- In cases of appeal it shall be competent to British subjects in suits commenced against them under the provisions of the present Act, instead of appealing to the Sudder Dewanny Adawlut, or other court exercising the highest appellate jurisdiction, to appeal to the supreme court in such presidency. No British subject shall be permitted to hold or occupy land beyond the limits of the several presidencies, without the permission of the government of such presidencies. Appeals.
- 108th. British subjects residing more than ten miles from each presidency shall obtain a certificate from the chief secretary of the government, and shall deposit such certificate for the purpose of record in the civil court of the district in which he shall so reside. A copy of such certificate shall be filed in any court in which such subjects may maintain any civil action. British subjects resident more than ten miles from each Presidency to obtain from the Government a certificate of such residence.
- 109th. Natives of India shall be subject to all the provincial courts of competent jurisdiction for all crimes and misdemeanours. Natives subject to the provincial courts.
- 110th. Admiralty courts at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, shall take cognizance of all crimes perpetrated on the high seas. Jurisdiction of Admiralty courts extended.
- 111th. The Advocate General or other principal law officer of the Company may file informations in the supreme courts for the recovery of any debts or monies due to his Majesty, in as full and effectual a manner as the Attorney General may prosecute in similar cases in any of the courts in England. Advocate General of the Company may file informations for debts due to the Crown.
- 112th. Persons may qualify as justices of the peace by taking the oaths required in any provincial court of justice. Justices of the peace.
- 113th. Court of Sudder Dewanny and Nizamut Adawlut, or other provincial courts may execute all manner of lawful process of arrest within the several presidencies. Such process shall be in writing, with an English translation, signed by a judge. Civil or criminal process of arrest.
- 114th. Persons within the local limits of the criminal jurisdiction of any of his Majesty's courts in either presidency, or subject to the same, who shall steal any bond, bill of exchange, promissory note, order, acknowledgment, or other security, shall be deemed and held to be guilty of felony in the same manner as if the offender had stolen goods of the like value. Stealing a chose in action punishable as for stealing goods.
- 115th. Persons committing forgery within the said jurisdiction shall be transported to such place beyond the seas, and for such term of years as the court shall direct. Forgery punishable with transportation.
- 116th. Persons counterfeiting any of the gold or silver coins in the British governments in India shall be transported to any place beyond the seas, and for such time as the court shall direct. Counterfeiting gold and silver coin punishable with transportation.
- 117th. If any person residing in, or being subject to the criminal jurisdiction of any of the courts within the limits of the Company's Charter shall utter or tender in payment any counterfeit coin, such person shall suffer for the first offence six months imprisonment, and find sureties for his good behaviour for six months more: for the second offence two years imprisonment, and security for his good behaviour for a like period more: for the third offence, transportation for life. Uttering counterfeit coins punishable with imprisonment. And for the third offence transportation for life.
- 118th. Certificate of conviction of any former offence, produced from the proper officer of the court in which such offence shall have been tried, shall be admitted as a proof of such conviction in the case of any person being again prosecuted in another court for a second offence. Certificate of former conviction sufficient evidence of such conviction.

Persons having more than five pieces of counterfeit coin in possession punishable by fine or imprisonment.

Counterfeiting licences punishable with fine and imprisonment.

Sentences of transportation to be carried into execution. Natives not to be transported beyond certain limits.

Perjury and suborning punishable according to the laws of England.

Defendant to plead the general issue in actions of unlawful arrest.

And in case of a verdict to have treble costs.

Limitation of suits.

Commencement of the Act.

119th. Persons within the said jurisdiction having in their possession more than five pieces of counterfeit coin, without lawful excuse, shall for every offence forfeit and pay a sum not exceeding twenty Sicca rupees for every such piece of counterfeit coin, or in case of non-payment thereof shall be imprisoned for three months, or until such penalty shall be paid.

120th. Persons within the limits of the Company's Charter counterfeiting any licence, certificate, or attested copy of the same, shall suffer imprisonment not exceeding one year, and shall pay a fine not exceeding 1000 Sicca rupees.

121st. The Governments of the several presidencies in India shall carry the sentence of transportation of the several courts into execution. But any native of India, not born of European parents, shall not be transported to any part beyond the seas situated more than 30 degrees north or 25 degrees south of the line.

122d. Persons convicted of making false oaths, or corruptly procuring or suborning any person to swear falsely, shall be liable to the penalties of perjury, according to the law of England.

123d. In case of any action or suit brought against the said Company, or any of their servants, for the unlawful arresting or sending any persons to the United Kingdom, the defendants may plead the general issue. Proof shall lie on the plaintiff. And where the plaintiff shall be nonsuited, or judgement shall be given against the plaintiff upon demurrer, the defendant shall have treble costs awarded to be paid by such plaintiff.

124th. Suits or prosecutions shall be commenced within three years after the cause of complaint shall have arisen; or in the United Kingdom in the absence of any person beyond sea, within three years after the return of such person to the United Kingdom.

125th. So much and such parts of the present Act, for which no time is appointed to commence, shall have commencement from the 10th April 1814.

ABSTRACT

OF 54 GEO. III. CAP. 34. (17th December 1813.)

Intituled "An Act for the further Regulation of the Trade to and from
"the Places within the Limits of the Charter of the East India
"Company."

- 1st. After the 10th of April 1814, British subjects may trade to any intermediate port or place between the United Kingdom and the limits of the Charter of the East India Company—situate in North and South America, (except any British colony in America,) and to the Island of Madeira, the Canaries, and Cape de Verde Islands, the Island of St. Helena, and the Cape of Good Hope, and to take on board any goods which can be legally carried from any of such intermediate ports or places. And British subjects may carry on trade in ships navigated according to law, directly and circuitously, between all ports and places within the limits of the said Company's Charter, except the dominions of the Emperor of China, any thing contained in any Charter of the said Company, or in any Act of Parliament to the contrary notwithstanding. Provided that nothing in this Act shall extend to authorize any of His Majesty's subjects, other than the said Company, to trade in tea between any such ports or places and the United Kingdom.
- 2d. Provided 1st, That nothing in this Act shall extend to repeal or alter the restrictions and provisions of the 53 Geo. III. cap. 155, as to the size of vessels allowed to clear out or enter at any port of the United Kingdom, or as to any licences, certificates, or lists, or any of the restrictions or provisions respecting the resort to and residence of any persons in the East Indies: Provided also, that all trade with all ports and places upon the Continent of Asia, from the river Indus to the town of Malacca inclusive, or any Island under the Government of the said Company, lying to the north of the Equator, or the said Company's factory at Bencoolen and its dependencies, shall continue subject to all such regulations and provisions, as shall from time to time be in force, under the authority of the Company's local Governments in India.
- 3d. Provided 2d, That His Majesty's settlement at the Cape of Good Hope shall, as to the trade allowed to be carried on by this Act, be taken to be within the limits of the East India Company's Charter: Provided also, that nothing in this Act shall extend to prevent or affect any other trade which may now or hereafter be allowed to be carried on between the said settlement and any other countries, ports, or places.
- 4th. This Act may be altered or repealed by any Act to be passed in the present Session of Parliament.
- British subjects may carry on trade with any intermediate ports or places.
- And may trade between all ports and places within the limits of the Company's Charter, except China.
- East India Company to have the exclusive trade in tea.
- Not to affect the provisions of the 53 Geo. III. cap. 155, as to size of ships, licences, certificates, lists, and restrictions, respecting residence in India.
- Trade between the Cape of Good Hope and other ports.
- This Act may be altered or repealed.

ABSTRACT

OF 54 GEO. III. CAP. 35. (17th December 1813.)

Intituled "An Act to extend the Period for allowing Importations from
" and Exportations to the Places within the Limits of the Charter of
" the East India Company, in Ships not of British-built, until the
" 1st of January 1815."

Importation and ex-
portation of goods in
ships not of British
built continued until
1st of January 1815.

1st. All the provisions, regulations, and restrictions, of the 53 Geo. III. cap. 155, or any order of Council issued under the said Act, with respect to allowing the importation or exportation of any goods in any ship or vessel as described in the said Act or Orders in Council, between the ports or places within the limits of the East India Company and the United Kingdom, shall be continued until the 1st of January 1815, and shall extend to any vessel, which shall sail from any port or place within the said limits, before the said 1st of January 1815.

This Act may be al-
tered or repealed.

2d. This Act may be altered or repealed by any Act which may be passed in the present Session of Parliament.

ABSTRACT

OF 54 GEO. III. CAP. 36. (17th December 1813.)

Intituled "An Act to repeal the Duties of Customs payable on Goods,
" Wares, and Merchandize, imported into Great Britain from any Port
" or Place within the Limits of the Charter granted to the United Com-
" pany of Merchants of England, trading to the East Indies; and to
" grant other Duties in lieu thereof; and to establish further Regulations
" for the better Security of the Revenue on Goods so imported; and to
" alter the Periods of making up and presenting certain Accounts of
" the said Company to Parliament; to continue in Force until the 10th
" of April 1819."

- 1st. All duties of customs payable on the importation of any goods or merchandize into Great Britain, from any port or place within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, and all drawbacks allowed on the exportation of the said goods or merchandize from Great Britain, by virtue of any Act of Parliament in force before the 10th of April 1814, shall cease and determine. Existing duties and drawbacks repealed.
- 2d. Instead of the duties and drawbacks repealed as above-mentioned, other duties of customs and drawbacks shall be paid and allowed, according to the Tables marked (A) and (B), annexed to the present Act. New duties and drawbacks.
- 3d. After the 10th of April 1815, the master or commander of every ship or vessel arriving in Great Britain from any of the ports or places before-mentioned, shall have on board and produce a manifest, as directed by the 26 Geo. III. cap. 40, and shall be subject to all the rules, regulations, and penalties of the said Act, as far as the same shall be applicable to the purposes of the present Act. Manifest required conformable to the 26 Geo. III. cap. 40.
- 4th. No goods or merchandize shall be imported into Great Britain from any of the ports or places before-mentioned, in any ship or vessel, unless the master or commander shall have on board a manifest in writing, signed by himself, and containing the particulars described in the said Act, the names of the persons to whom such goods shall be consigned, the time and place of shipment, and distinguishing the goods stowed in the hold from those in other parts of the ship or vessel. Description of manifest.

APPENDIX.

Alterations in the stowage of goods to be noted in a supplementary manifest, &c.

Original and duplicate manifest to be sent by different conveyances.

List of marks and numbers of packages shipped.

Goods discharged and laden at other places.

Manifest for any vessel touching at the Cape of Good Hope or St. Helena in the homeward voyage.

The same required at any other port or place.

British consuls at foreign ports to officiate as officers.

Goods imported without a manifest forfeited, and the master liable to a penalty of 50% for each package.

- 5th. Provided, that all alterations made in the stowage of the ship or vessel, by the removal of goods from one part of the vessel to another, after the completion of the manifest, shall be registered in the log-book or journal of the master of such vessel, and also in a supplementary manifest, which shall be annexed to the original manifest to which it refers.
- 6th. Before the departure of any ship or vessel, the master or commander shall produce a manifest in writing, verified upon oath, to the officer appointed by the Governor, who shall endorse thereon his name, with the day and year on which the same was produced to him, and shall cause a duplicate thereof to be forthwith made. The officer in question shall return the original manifest to such master or commander, and shall transmit the duplicate by the first opportunity, other than the said vessel, to the commissioners of the customs in England or Scotland, as the case may require.
- 7th. Provided, that every person shipping goods shall deliver to such master a true list of the goods shipped, with the marks and numbers of the packages, signed by the shipper. The master shall insert the particulars of such list in the manifest, and shall annex the original list to the duplicate manifest above-mentioned.
- 8th. In the case of any vessel, fully or partly laden at one port or place, proceeding to another, and discharging part of the cargo, the said officer shall endorse upon the manifest the particulars of the part of the cargo so discharged. And where any other goods shall be laden at such latter or other port or place, an additional manifest, original and duplicate, shall be made out, authenticated, and transmitted in the manner above-mentioned.
- 9th. The master of any ship or vessel in the homeward voyage, that shall touch at the Cape of Good Hope, or the Island of St. Helena, shall produce to such officer the original manifest, and shall again verify the same on oath; and the officer shall transmit a duplicate of such manifest to the commissioners of the customs in England and Scotland, as the case may require. And where any goods shall be taken on board the said vessel, at the Cape of Good Hope or the Island of St. Helena, a separate manifest for such goods shall be produced and authenticated, and a duplicate transmitted as before-mentioned.
- 10th. Provided 1st, that such vessel touching at any other port or place, shall be subject to the same regulations with respect to the manifest, as on touching at the Cape of Good Hope or the Island of St. Helena.
- 11th. Provided 2d, that if the said port or place shall not be under the British Government, the British consul resident thereat shall do and perform all that is required of the said officer respecting the manifest.
- 12th. After the 10th of April 1815, all goods imported into Great Britain, from any place within the limits of the Charter of the East India Company, or from any port or place aforesaid, in any vessel belonging, in the whole or in part, to British subjects, without the manifest required as above, or shall not be included or described therein, or shall not agree therewith, shall be seized by any officer of the customs and forfeited, notwithstanding such goods may have been included in the report of the said vessel; and the master or commander of such vessel shall forfeit £50 for every package so imported into Great Britain.

- 13th. The penalties imposed by the 26 Geo. III. cap. 40, on the master or commander of any ship or vessel importing goods into Great Britain, from any of the aforesaid places, with respect to the manifest required to be produced, shall be repealed from the 10th of April 1815. Former penalties repealed from 10th of April 1815.
- 14th. Provided that the manifest, required by the 27 Geo. III. cap. 32, for goods imported into Great Britain by the East India Company from China, shall not be repealed or altered. Manifest of goods from China not to be altered.
- 15th. After the 10th of April 1814, the hatches of every ship or vessel arriving in Great Britain, from any of the ports or places before-mentioned, shall be secured under the joint locks of the master or commander of such vessel, and of the officers of the customs and excise, and no hatch shall be opened but in the presence of such officers respectively, and any officer neglecting to attend the locking up or opening any such hatches, shall, for every offence, on conviction, forfeit and pay £100. Hatches to be locked.
- 16th. The East India Company shall deposit, in approved warehouses, any goods imported by them into the port of London, under the securities and regulations of the 39 Geo. III. cap. 59, on the duties imposed by the present Act being paid or secured. East India Company to warehouse their goods.
- 17th. Provided, that after the 10th of April 1814, all goods, imported by any person from any port or place within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, or from any port in Great Britain to the port of London, shall be deposited in warehouses belonging to the East India Company, or approved by the commissioners of the customs, subject to all the securities and regulations in force by Act of Parliament, previous to the 10th of April 1814. Goods imported by private traders to be warehoused.
- 18th. All goods imported from any port or place within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, into any of the ports allowed in Great Britain, (except the port of London,) shall be deposited in warehouses approved by the commissioners of the customs in England and Scotland respectively, subject to all the regulations and securities of the 43 Geo. III. cap. 132, and of any Act for amending and explaining the same, previous to the 10th of April 1814. Goods imported into other ports to be warehoused.
- 19th. Provided, that nothing contained either in the 39 Geo. III. cap. 59, or 43 Geo. III. cap. 132, shall exempt any of the goods so warehoused as aforesaid, from the payment of the duties of customs imposed by this Act; which duties shall be paid previous to the delivery of any such goods from the said warehouse, either for exportation or home consumption. Nothing contained in 39 Geo. III. cap. 59, and 43 Geo. III. cap. 132, to exempt goods from the warehousing duties.
- 20th. The East India Company may give bond for the duties of customs imposed by this Act on goods imported by them, in the usual manner and under the same regulations and penalties as before the said 10th of April 1814. East India Company to give bond for the payment of duties on their goods.
- 21st. Goods imported from any port or place within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, and deposited in warehouses, on which the duties imposed by this Act shall have been paid or secured, may be exported directly from such warehouse without payment of any further duty of customs or excise, subject, nevertheless, to all the rules, regulations, and securities, of any Act in force on the said 10th of April 1814. Goods warehoused, having paid the duties, may be exported without the payment of further duty.
- 22d. Persons intending to take goods, imported as aforesaid, out of warehouses, (not being prohibited to be used or consumed in Great Britain,) for the purpose of home consumption, shall first make an entry of such goods, and pay down in ready money, to the proper officer of the customs, the duties imposed by this Act under the description of Goods taken out of the warehouse, to be consumed in Great Britain, to pay the duties on home consumption imposed by this Act.

- home consumption duties, together with such duties of excise and other duties as may be due on the goods at the time they are taken out of such warehouse.
- Duties to be paid on all goods imported before 10th of April 1814. 23d. Provided 1st, That no goods shall be delivered from any such warehouses, either for exportation or home consumption, until the duties imposed by this Act shall be fully paid, notwithstanding such goods may have been imported and sold before the said 10th of April 1814.
- Drawback to be allowed on goods exported within one year. 24th. Provided 2d, That the several drawbacks allowed on the exportation of goods from Great Britain shall not be paid or allowed, unless the same shall be exported within 12 calendar months from the day on which the home consumption duty shall have been paid.
- How the value of goods shall be ascertained. 25th. Where the duties of customs imposed by this Act, on goods, are charged not by weight, tale, guage, or measure, but according to the value thereof, such value shall be ascertained conformable to declaration, in like manner and form, and under the rules, regulations, and penalties prescribed in the 27 Geo. III. cap. 13, or any other Act in force before the said 10th of April 1814.
- Value of goods imported into London ascertained. 26th. The value of goods, on which duties are imposed by this Act, imported into the port of London, shall be ascertained according to the gross price at which such goods shall be sold at the public sales of the East India Company.
- How to ascertain the value of goods imported into an out-port. 27th. The value of goods imported into any port of Great Britain except London, and which are not required to be removed to London for the purpose of sale for home consumption, shall be ascertained according to the declaration of the value thereof, in like manner, and under the rules, regulations, and penalties prescribed in the said Act, or any other Act in force on the 10th of April 1814.
- Articles imported as presents, or for private use, to be entered on the declared value. 28th. Goods imported into Great Britain, from any port or place within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, either as presents or for private use, and not by way of merchandize, shall be deposited in warehouses according to law, and shall be entered with the proper officers of the customs according to the declaration of the value thereof, to be made by the owner or his known agent, under the rules, regulations, and penalties prescribed with respect to goods not imported by the East India Company, and on which the duties of customs are payable according to declaration.
- Oath to be made of goods entered for private use. 29th. Goods imported into Great Britain, on or before the 10th of April 1814, may be entered at the value ascertained by the directions of this Act, provided proof shall be made, on oath, before the officers of the customs, that such goods were imported for private use, and not by way of merchandize.
- Duties and drawbacks on prize goods. 30th. Provided, that East India goods taken and condemned as prize shall be deposited in warehouses, and shall be sold at the public sale of the said Company, and shall be subject to such duties, and entitled to such drawbacks, as the like sort of goods respectively, under the present Act, and shall be subject to the rules, regulations, and restrictions of any Act in force on the said 10th of April 1814.
- Duties on sugar to continue till 25th of March 1815. 31st. The duties imposed by this Act upon the importation of sugar shall continue in force until the 25th of March 1815, and shall be appropriated, applied, and accounted for according to the provisions of the 54 Geo. III. cap. 2.
- Treasury may suspend the duty on sugar. 32d. The Lords Commissioners of His Majesty's Treasury may suspend the payment of a part of the temporary or war duty on sugar imposed by this Act, in like manner and in the same proportion as the said Lords are authorised to do under the 49 Geo. III. cap. 98, with respect to other sugar imported into Great Britain.

33d. Whenever it shall appear, by notice in the London Gazettee, in the manner directed by the 46 Geo. III. cap. 42, that the average price of Brown or Muscovado sugar, for four months preceding the 5th of January, 5th of May, and 5th of September, respectively, in every year, shall exceed 60s. the hundred weight, 1s. in the hundred weight, part of the permanent duty, shall be suspended, until a new average shall be published, and—

Regulations for suspending the duty on sugar.

		per Cwt,	in the Cwt.		
If the average price shall exceed		61 shillings	-	2 shillings,	part of the said duty, shall be suspended.
Idem	-	Idem	-	62	Idem
Idem	-	Idem	-	63	Idem
Idem	-	Idem	-	64	Idem
Idem	-	Idem	-	65	Idem
Idem	-	Idem	-	66	Idem
Idem	-	Idem	-	67	Idem
Idem	-	Idem	-	68	Idem
Idem	-	Idem	-	69	Idem

34th. After the 10th of April 1814, there shall be allowed on the exportation from Great Britain of refined sugar, produced from sugar imported from any port or place within the limits of the East India Company, the like bounty as is now or hereafter may be allowed on the exportation from Great Britain of the like description of refined sugar produced from raw sugar imported from the British plantations in America, under the same regulations and restrictions as are now practised and applied with respect to the bounty allowed on the exportation of refined sugar.

Bounty on the exportation of refined sugar.

35th. After the 10th of April 1814, if any vessel coming from foreign parts, owned by British subjects, or having one half the number of persons on board British subjects, (except vessels in the service of the East India Company,) shall be found on the high seas, having on board more than six pounds of tea, besides any tea not exceeding one pound for each of the persons on board for their own use, then such tea, and the packages containing the same, together with such vessel and her guns, and apparel, shall be forfeited.

Ship with more than six pounds of tea on board, unless in the service of the East India Company, forfeited.

36th. Vessels and goods, forfeited by this Act, may be seized by any officer of the navy or of His Majesty's customs; and such forfeiture may be prosecuted and recovered in like manner as any forfeiture may be prosecuted and recovered in any part of the British dominions.

Seizures may be made by officers of the navy or customs.

37th. Provided 1st, That nothing in this Act, or in the before-mentioned Act, shall be construed to extend to alter or repeal any Act of Parliament in force on the said 10th of April 1814, for prohibiting the consumption of any foreign manufacture in Great Britain, but that any such Act shall continue to have the same force and effect as if the first-mentioned Acts had not been made.

Not to repeal former Acts for prohibiting the use of foreign manufactures.

38th. Provided 2d, That nothing in this Act shall be construed to extend to allow any goods or merchandize to be imported into or exported from Great Britain, contrary to any Act in force on the said 10th of April 1814, except where provision is expressly made for that purpose.

Not to affect former laws of import and export.

Duties payable on a greater or less quantity of goods.

East India goods imported from Ireland.

Duties on tea to be paid as heretofore.

Not to repeal or alter the Acts of Union.

Not to affect tonnage duty in Great Britain.

Not to affect the tonnage duties of the port of London.

Not to affect the quarantine laws.

Not to affect East India dock rates.

Not to affect duties of package or scavage.

Not to repeal or alter the Excise Acts.

Former regulations to be continued.

Goods and duties of customs under former regulations.

39th. The duties imposed by this Act, according to the weight, measure, or value of any goods charged with duties, shall be paid upon any greater or less weight, measure, or value, than is set forth in the Tables annexed to the present Act, in proportion to the actual weight, measure, or value of such goods.

40th. After the said 10th of April 1814, any goods imported into Ireland from any port or place within the limits of the East India Company's Charter may be imported directly from thence into any of those ports in Great Britain which are appropriated for the custody of such goods, and shall be subject or entitled to the like duties on importation, and drawbacks on exportation, regulations, restrictions, and penalties, and to be warehoused, as any goods would be subject or entitled to, if the same had been imported into Great Britain directly from any of the said ports or places.

41st. Provided 1st, That nothing in this Act shall extend to alter the manner in which the duties of customs are paid on the importation of tea into Great Britain; which said duties shall continue to be paid as heretofore.

42d. Provided 2d, That nothing in this Act shall extend to repeal or alter any of the provisions contained in the two Acts for the Union of Great Britain and Ireland, passed in the 39th and 40th years of His present Majesty's reign, or any other Act in force on the 1st of April 1814.

43d. Provided 3d, That nothing in this Act shall extend to alter or affect the tonnage duty on vessels entering inwards or outwards in any port in Great Britain, from or to foreign parts, granted by the 49 Geo. III. cap. 98.

44th. Provided 4th, That nothing in this Act shall extend to alter or affect the duties on vessels, according to their tonnage, granted by the Acts, passed in the 39th and 40th years of the reign of His present Majesty, respecting the improvement of the port of London.

45th. Provided 5th, That nothing in this Act shall extend to affect or repeal any of the provisions contained in the 45 Geo. III. cap. 10, and 46 Geo. III. cap. 98, respecting the performance of quarantine in Great Britain.

46th. Provided 6th, That nothing in this Act shall extend to alter or repeal any of the rates or duties granted to the East India Dock Company by any Act of Parliament in force on the said 10th of April 1814.

47th. Nothing in this Act shall extend to repeal or alter the duties of package or scavage, or any other duties payable to the city of London, or any other city or town corporate in Great Britain.

48th. Provided, that nothing in this Act shall extend to repeal or alter any Act of Parliament in force on the said 10th of April 1814, relating to the duties of excise.

49th. Every Act of Parliament in force on the said 10th of April 1814, respecting the revenue of customs, duties, importation, and exportation, the value of goods, and coasting trade, except where any alteration is expressly made by this Act, shall remain in full force and effect.

50th. The goods, whereon duties of customs are imposed and drawbacks allowed by this Act, shall be subject to the like regulations, restrictions, penalties, and forfeitures, to which goods are subject or liable by any Act of Parliament in force on the said 10th of April 1814. And the duties of customs and drawbacks of the same shall be raised, and collected as heretofore, unless where expressly altered by the present Act.

- 51st. The duties of customs imposed by this Act, arising in each part of the kingdom, shall be under the management of the Commissioners of the Customs in England and Scotland respectively. Duties under the commissioners of the customs.
- 52d. The duties of customs imposed by this Act, under the description of Temporary or War Duties, shall continue in force during the war, and until six months after the ratification of a definitive treaty of peace. Temporary or war duties.
- 53d. The permanent duties of customs imposed by this Act, shall be paid into His Majesty's Exchequer, and carried to the consolidated fund of Great Britain, and shall be appropriated in like manner as the permanent duties of customs hereby repealed would have been appropriated if this Act had not been passed. And the temporary or war duties shall be appropriated in like manner as similar duties, under the 49 Geo. III. cap. 98. Appropriation.
- 54th. Exporters of sugar from Great Britain, whereon the home consumption duty imposed by this Act shall have been paid, shall be entitled to the like drawback as shall be allowed at the time on Brown or Muscovado sugar of the produce of the British plantations exported from Great Britain: provided that nothing in this Act shall extend to impose any duty on such sugar when taken out of the warehouse for exportation only. Drawback allowed on sugar exported.
- 55th. The several accounts directed by the 33 Geo. III. cap. 52, shall, by the Court of Directors of the said United Company, be annually made up to the 1st of May, and be presented to both Houses of Parliament within the first 14 sitting days after the said period. East India accounts.
- 56th. If any action shall be commenced against any person, for any thing done in pursuance of this Act, the defendant may plead the general issue, and give this Act and the special matter in evidence at any trial to be had thereupon; and if the jury shall find for the defendant, or if the plaintiff shall be nonsuited, or if upon demurrer judgement shall be given against the plaintiff, the defendant shall have treble costs, and the like remedy as in similar cases where costs are recovered by law. General issue.
- 57th. This Act may be altered, or repealed, by any Act to be made in the present Session of Parliament. This Act may be altered or repealed.
- 58th. This Act shall continue in force (except where any special continuation is directed) until the 10th of April 1819. Continuation of this Act.

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THE END.

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